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HUNT'S

MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE.

AUGUST, 1843.

ART. I.—THE SANDWICH OR HAWAIIAN ISLANDS.

NUMBER II.

THEIR COMMERCE AND AGRICULTURE—THEIR PROSPECTS—CHIEF TOWNS—SEIZURE BY LORD  
GEORGE PAULET, ETC.

PREVIOUS to the visit of Captain Cook, the internal commerce of the group was limited to a mere exchange, between the several islands or districts, of those articles which more abundantly grew, or were more ingeniously manufactured in each. For this purpose, stated fairs were held, subject to certain general rules for their maintenance, and the preservation of good order. But they were not of very frequent occurrence; and it is probable that their many wars prevented the inhabitants from engaging in a constant trade, which otherwise their agricultural habits and enterprising dispositions might have drawn them into, and thus prepared them, in a still more favorable degree, for adopting civilized pursuits.

Between 1535 and 1650, Europeans, most probably Spaniards, several times visited the group. Some of their number remained among the people, intermarried with them, and their descendants became so thoroughly nationalized, that, one hundred and fifty years afterward, but faint traces or signs of their origin remained—but they were sufficient to identify them as being partly of a different and lighter race than the present inhabitants. The cursory view which the Spaniards of that period took of the islands, satisfied them that neither precious metals, or fruitfulness of the soil, were inducements for them to found a settlement there. Of the former, not the slightest trace existed—of the latter, it was mainly to be seen in the interior of the valleys, and far inland, where probably the warlike habits of the inhabitants deterred them from penetrating, as there appeared to be no prospect of gain to remunerate the toils and dangers which would have been encountered. Moreover, these visits appear to have been chiefly the result of accident, and by single vessels which had departed somewhat from their ordinary course in crossing the Pacific, and whose crews

were not of sufficient strength to allow of exploration. Be this as it may, it is certain that, beyond this occasional touching at a few points, or coasting their shores, during the period abovementioned, no use, either for purposes of traffic or colonization, was made of the discovery. Either from their apparent insignificance, or from motives of selfish policy, the court of Madrid discouraged any attempts at the latter, and likewise suppressed all journals which related to cruises in that quarter. Consequently, the knowledge of their existence became lost, in a great measure, to the nation that discovered them; and the very knowledge of the fact of their visits, about which hangs a mystery which affords a fine and novel field for romance, is derived from the Hawaiians themselves, with but incidental, though strongly corroborating testimony, from the naval histories of that era. With all the precautions of the Spanish court, however, a group of islands, answering in most particulars to the present Hawaiian, found its way upon the charts of that nation, and with but so little distance from their correct position, as to leave not a shadow of doubt that *La Disgraciada*, *La Mesa*, and *Los Mojos*, of the seventeenth century, are identical with the *Hawaii*, *Maui*, *Oahu*, and the other islands of the Hawaiian group of the nineteenth century. This cluster, and another island called *San Francisco*, large, and within one hundred miles of the true position of the largest island of the Sandwich group, *Hawaii*, are to be found upon the chart accompanying the earlier editions of *Anson's Voyages*. Captain Cook probably derived his idea of the existence of a large group in the North Pacific, from this chart, which was said to have been copied from an early Spanish one. At any rate, he shaped his course directly for them, and manifested no surprise at falling in with land in that direction.

Iron was well known among the natives at that period, though the specimens which they possessed were few, and comparatively useless. Its value was well understood; and while trinkets were comparatively but little prized, iron was held in the highest estimation. The desire to possess it led to robbery on their part, and murder on the part of their visitors. But trade, on equitable terms, was soon established; and bits of iron-hoop, nails, &c., were found quite as efficient agents for procuring supplies, as dollars and doubloons would now be on the same spot, though but sixty-four years later. The mercantile habits of the natives, their shrewd bargaining, and understanding of the value of equivalents, struck *La Perouse* with surprise, in 1786; and he attributed this knowledge, and very plausibly, to their former intercourse with Spaniards. For a few years, bits of iron, beads, and the varied et cetera, of almost valueless character, with which ships were wont, at that period, to be supplied, to purchase refreshments and stores, were all-sufficient to tempt the cupidity of the savages. In 1790, fire-arms, gunpowder, and ardent spirits, began to be desired; and soon after cottons, linens, broadcloths, iron-ware—in short, the useful and necessary products of civilization, as well as the destructive and demoralizing. No export, however, had yet been discovered—their sales were limited to supplying provisions, firewood, water, and spars for vessels.

In 1792, the attention of Captain Kendrick, of Boston, was first drawn towards sandal-wood as an article of export. He left two men on *Kanai* to collect a cargo, and purchase pearls—few of the latter, however, are there found, of either beauty or value. The wars and dissension among the natives probably prevented the former trade from being then lucra-

tive, as we find it was not prosecuted to any extent, until the commencement of the next century, when the group was united under one monarch, Kamehameha the Great, at once a religious, civil, military, and commercial despot. No source of profit escaped his vigilant eye, and he monopolized for his own coffers all the lucrative branches of trade, and husbanded them with a wisdom which showed an intellect not inferior to the most cultivated and shrewdest of his white customers. Owing to the beneficence of the English government, through Vancouver, the islands were then well stocked with exotic fruits and vegetables, and with cattle. These added to the wealth and commerce of the monarch-trader. He wisely discouraged the use of ardent spirits, and prohibited their manufacture within his kingdom. The stores of manufactured goods of England and the United States, and military equipments collected by him, were extensive and valuable. His treasury was well filled with Spanish dollars and gold. Not contented with these accumulations, he made arrangements with the Russian governors at the north, to open a traffic with them, and, in the latter part of his reign, fitted out a fine vessel of his own, and sent her on a voyage to Canton, loaded with sandal-wood. Through mismanagement, this proved an unprofitable speculation, but it suggested to him a new source of revenue. In 1818, he established pilot and harbor fees, at a high rate, and which were not diminished until 1825. At that date, by the advice of Lord Byron, who was at Honolulu in the *Blonde* frigate, they were placed upon a more moderate footing.

Upon the succession of his son, Siholiho, the treasures of his father were soon dissipated by his extravagance. Abandoning the wise measures of his predecessor, by which the sandal-wood trade was made, under suitable regulations, a regular and permanent source of real profit to the islands, he recklessly rushed into profuse expenditures, which could only be met by an equally extravagant supply of the wood. While it lasted, it was like a mine of gold. Before 1820, it had been exported at the rate of several hundred thousand dollars annually. Now, it was sought for, and cut indiscriminately. Wines, liquors, and the richest products of China, England, and the United States, poured into the kingdom, and were either wasted in riot and debauchery, or destroyed by neglect. With the jovial king, it was one gala day, while the source of purchasing remained undiminished. Mountains and hills, valleys and plains, were ransacked for the precious commodity. Siholiho practised on his own subjects the same extortion, rapine, and system of compulsory labor, that the Spaniards of Cuba, Mexico, and Peru, did upon the unfortunate aborigines of those countries, in their eager search for gold. The consequences were alike disastrous. Famine, misery, and death, stalked over the land. Numbers perished, or sought safety in flight or exile. The population withered before the curse which the avarice of their chiefs, and the dissipation of their ruler, brought upon them. Vast quantities of sandal-wood were collected, and exported; so much so, that the supply became either exhausted, or so difficult of access, as to prove an almost insurmountable bar to its further export. Still, as may have been expected, the government involved itself deeply in debt.

At this period, in their simplicity, some natives would exchange a dingy, worn doubloon, for a bright, new dollar. Vessels were purchased, occasionally, by their bulk in sandal-wood; and a pit being dug equal to the greatest depth, length and breadth of the vessel in negotiation, it was filled

with sandal-wood, which was exchanged for the desired craft. The Cleopatra's barge, of Salem, a prettily ornamented pleasure craft, brought, it is said, upwards of \$60,000, or more than six times her cost. The profit made by the merchants, at that time, was great; and, had the policy of Kamehameha I. been continued by his son, wealth would have flowed in abundance into the islands. Vessels flocked thither for supplies, in great numbers. From forty to sixty ships, mostly whalers, were, at certain seasons, there at once. Their disbursements were very considerable. After the death of Siholiho, in 1824, trade began to assume a more systematic form. Respectable mercantile houses were established among the foreign residents, and the prices yearly approximated to a more correct standard. The resources of the islands, thus passing in foreign hands, were properly husbanded; and from that period commenced a prosperity which has been gradually and steadily increasing, until it has made the group an exporter of agricultural products of her own growth, an entrepot of goods for other markets, and a valuable consumer for the United States, England, and China.

The commercial statistics will best serve to show the actual rate of increase, from year to year, of exports and imports, commencing in 1834. The statement of shipping that visited the port of Honolulu, Oahu, during that year, is as follows. These statistics are gathered from tables carefully prepared at the Sandwich islands, from year to year, by those interested in the trade.

	Whale Ships.	In Spring.	In Fall.	Total.	Tonnage.	Bbls. sperm oil.
1834—American,..		37	58	95	34,016	99,008
English,.....		4	13	17	6,089	19,400
Total,....		41	71	112	40,095	118,407
Merchant vessels, 56—sloop-of-war, 1—tonnage,.....					6,311	

Total tonnage,..... 46,406

Merchant vessels belonging to Oahu,.....	17
“ “ “ United States,.....	8
“ “ “ England,.....	4
“ “ “ Sydney,.....	3
“ “ “ Canton,.....	3
“ “ “ Tahiti,.....	1

Merchantmen,..... 56

Whalers,..... 112

Man-of-war,..... 1

Total vessels,..... 169

	Whale Ships.	In Spring.	In Fall.	Total.	Tonnage.	Bbls. sperm oil.
1835—American,..		12	50	62	22,282	71,600
English,.....		0	10	10	3,714	10,140
Total,....		12	60	72	25,996	81,740
Merchant vessels, 36—tonnage,.....					6,405	

Total tonnage,..... 32,401

Merchant vessels belonging to Oahu,.....	12
“ “ “ Boston,.....	8
“ “ “ London,.....	5
“ “ “ Mexico,.....	2
“ “ “ Salem,.....	3
“ “ “ Isle of France,.....	2

Merchant vessels belonging to Canton,.....	2
“ “ “ Antwerp,.....	1
“ “ “ Valparaiso,.....	1
Merchantmen, .....	36
Whalers,.....	72
Russian government ship,.....	1
Total vessels,.....	109

1836—Whalers: American, 52; English, 9; total, 61—22,000 tons. Merchant vessels belonging to Oahu, 15; Boston, 9; Salem, 4; New Bedford, 2; England, 5, (including one steamboat for Columbia river;) China, 4; Isle of France, 1; Mexico, 1; Calcutta, 1; total, 42—7,793 tons. United States men-of-war, 2; English, 1; French, 1; total, 4.

1837—Whalers: American, 50; English, 16; French, 1; total, 67. Merchantmen: American, 11; English, 1; Mexican, 1; Canton, 2; Oahu, 12; Prussia, 1; total, 28. English men-of-war, 3; French, 1; total, 4.

1838—Whalers: American, 63; English, 10; France, 3; total, 76. Merchantmen: American, 3; English, 6; Mexican, 2; Tahiti, 1; total, 12. Man-of-war: English, 1; total vessels, 89.

1839—Whalers: American, 57; English, 2; Oahu, 1; total, 60. Merchantmen: American, 8; England, 7; Oahu, 8; Tahiti, 1; Manilla, 1; Prussia, 1; total, 26. Men-of-war: American, 3; English, 3; French, 1; Russian, 1; total, 8—94 vessels.

1840—Whalers: American, 36; England, 2; Oahu, 1; total, 39. Merchantmen: American, 14; England, 10; Oahu, 6; France, 1; total, 31. Men-of-war: United States exploring expedition, 6; France, 2; total, 8—78 vessels.

1841—Whalers: American, 50; England, 7; total, 57. Merchantmen: American, 19; England, 13; France, 2; Oahu, 40, (including coasters;) Mexico, 1; total, 75. Men-of-war: American, 10, (including arrivals of United States exploring expedition;) England, 1; total, 11—143 vessels.

The preceding statistics are for the port of Honolulu alone. At Lahaina, on Maui, from June 1, 1840, to May 1, 1841, forty American whalers recruited. Two United States men-of-war visited that port also. The crews of all numbered upwards of twelve hundred men. Occasionally a French or English whaler, or merchantman, touch there. American whalers recruit also at the ports of Hilo, Kailua, and Kealeakreakua, on Hawaii; and Waimea, Koloa, and Haioli, on Kanai, and also at Niihau, which latter island produces excellent yams.

From January, 1834, to January, 1842, 545 vessels of the United States visited the port of Honolulu; and there were, during that period, twenty arrivals of United States men-of-war. Of English vessels, 129—men-of-war, 8. Of French vessels, 6—men-of-war, 5. Total of all vessels for eight years, 888. The year 1841 includes the coasting trade.

The average expenditures of whale ships for recruits, every visit, are from \$700 to \$800 each.

The total value of American property touching at these islands annually, including the outfits of the whalers and their oil, is about \$4,000,000. Seamen, two thousand. This statement does not include the value and crews of national ships.

Pilotage from the port of Honolulu is as follows: For taking a vessel in or out, one dollar per foot.

Vessels entering for refreshments, pay the following harbor fees:

For the outer harbor,..... 6 cents per ton.  
“ inner “ ..... 10 “

Vessels entering for purposes of trade :

For the outer harbor,.....	\$	50 cents per ton.
“ inner “ .....	60	“
Per the buoys,.....	2 00	“

All goods must be manifested, and landed only by permission of the harbor-master. In 1842, a trifling duty on imports was laid, amounting to not over 3 per cent, ad valorem. A higher rate of duties will doubtless be shortly established.

The following tables show the amount of exports and imports for five years, arranged under their various countries. They are not strictly accurate, but are as nearly so as can be gleaned from a general knowledge of invoices where no custom-house regulations have been established. They are chiefly drawn from tables prepared by Messrs. Peirce and Brewer, merchants of Honolulu, for the Polynesian of 1840 and 1841.

UNITED STATES—Imports.

Consisting of cotton cloths, bleached and unbleached, blue prints, chintz, hardware, glass, Britannia ware, copper, cordage, naval stores, furniture, canvas, flour, bread, provisions, wines, ardent spirits, soap, iron, paints, shoes, clothing, books, lumber, &c. &c.

1836,.....	\$151,000
1837,.....	170,000
1838,.....	73,000
1839,.....	231,000
1840 to August 17, 1841,.....	310,000

Total,..... \$935,000

The aggregate amount of goods sold from American whaleships annually would swell the above sum to considerably upwards of \$1,000,000.

ENGLAND—Imports.

Longcloths, broadcloths, chintz, prints, spirits, malt liquors, hardware, clothing, &c.

1836,.....	\$10,000
1837,.....	8,000
1838,.....	5,600
1839,.....	10,000
1840 to August, 1841,.....	94,000

Total,..... \$127,600

MEXICO—Imports.

Specie and bullion.

1836,.....	\$36,600
1837,.....	29,000
1838,.....	20,000
1839,.....	42,000
1840 to August, 1841,.....	40,000

Total,..... \$167,600

PRUSSIA—Imports.

Cotton goods, &c.

1837,.....	\$5,000
1839,.....	2,000

Total,..... \$7,000

CALIFORNIA, AND ITS ISLANDS—Imports.

Sea-otter skins, land furs, soap, lumber, beans, horses, hides, tallow.

1836,.....	\$73,900
1837,.....	49,500

1838,.....	\$61,900
1839,.....	26,500
1840 to August, 1841,.....	59,700
Total,.....	\$271,500

*CHINA—Imports.*

Same chiefly from the United States and England; also, French goods and flour.

1836,.....	\$29,000
1837,.....	23,000
1838,.....	10,000
1839,.....	31,000
1840 to August, 1841,.....	67,000
Total,.....	\$160,000

*CHINA—Imports.*

Blue nankeens, blue cottons, teas, furniture, silks, satins, &c.

1836,.....	\$70,000
1837,.....	47,000
1838,.....	30,000
1839,.....	31,000
1840 to August, 1841,.....	55,000
Total,.....	\$233,000

*SOCIETY ISLANDS, ASCENSION AND OTHER ISLANDS—Imports.*

Turtle shell, cocoanut oil, pearls and pearl shell, sugar.

1836,.....	\$21,500
1837,.....	10,800
1838,.....	1,500
1841,.....	6,500
Total,.....	\$40,000

*RUSSIAN SETTLEMENTS ON THE COLUMBIA RIVER AND NORTHWEST COAST OF AMERICA—Imports.*

Lumber, salmon, spars, &c.

1836,.....	\$21,000
1837,.....	8,000
1838,.....	5,000
1839,.....	5,000
1840 to August, 1841,.....	17,000
Total,.....	\$56,000

*MANILLA—Imports.*

Cigars, rope, hats, rice, manufactures of England, China, and the United States.

1840,.....	\$15,000
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*NEW SOUTH WALES—SYDNEY—Imports.*

English goods.

1841,.....	\$10,000
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Total value of imports during the year—

1836,.....	\$413,000
1837,.....	350,500
1838,.....	207,000
1839,.....	378,500
1840 to August, 1841,.....	674,000

Total—5 years 7 months,..... \$2,023,000

Inclusive of goods sold from whalers throughout the islands, the imports for that period may safely be estimated at \$2,200,000. A large portion of the imports into Honolulu

are purchased for reshipment to California and the Southern islands, and the Russian settlements. A large quantity of merchandise also arrives annually, destined for other markets, and is either temporarily stored, or remains on shipboard.

The value of vessels owned by foreign residents and natives has varied, within the few past years, from \$50,000 to \$75,000—tonnage from twelve to fifteen hundred tons. In 1840 there were seven vessels owned by citizens of the United States, valued at \$39,000; three by English subjects, valued at \$17,000.

#### EXPORTS FROM HONOLULU OF SANDWICH ISLAND PRODUCE, AND VALUE.

January 1 to December 1.	Sandal-wood,* \$7 per picul.	Bullock hides,† \$2 each.	Goat skins,‡ 23 cents each.	Salt,§ \$1 25 per barrel.	Leaf to- bacco,   15 cts. lb.	Sugar,¶ — per pound.	Molasses & syrup,** — per gal.
1836,.....	\$26,000	\$12,000	\$4,600	\$4,400	\$500	.....	.....
1837,.....	12,000	13,000	4,500	2,700	300	\$300	\$1,000
1838,.....	6,000	10,000	3,000	1,400	.....	6,200	3,450
1839,.....	21,000	6,000	1,000	2,900	.....	6,000	3,000
1840 to Aug. 1841	.....	21,500	14,140	4,400	300	25,000	9,000
Total, ..	\$65,000	\$62,500	\$27,240	\$15,800	\$1,100	\$37,500	\$16,450

#### TABLE—Continued.

January 1 to December 1.	Kukui oil,†† 50 cents per gallon.	Sperm oil,‡‡ 50 cents per vessels fitted out at Oahu.	Arrow- root,§§ 5 cents per pound.	Raw silk.	Supplies to vessels—fresh & salt provis- ions, &c., firewood.	Sundries— Pulu, a moss for beds, must'd-s'd, brooms, &c.	Total value of native produce exported.
1836,.....	\$400	.....	\$300	.....	\$25,000	.....	\$73,200
1837,.....	600	.....	200	.....	50,000	.....	84,600
1838,.....	500	.....	300	.....	36,000	.....	66,850
1839,.....	500	\$4,000	.....	.....	50,000	.....	94,400
1840 to Aug. 1841,	500	9,900	5,100	\$200	86,500	\$2,090	178,730
Total, ..	\$2,500	\$13,900	\$5,900	\$200	\$247,500	\$2,090	\$497,780

\* Most of the sandal-wood is young, and of inferior quality. A small amount is annually shipped to China.

† The bullocks are found in herds, wild, on the mountains of Hawaii. The annual export has heretofore been from three to ten thousand hides; but, in 1840, the king laid a taboo upon their destruction for five years, which will enable them to increase very much, and afford him a productive revenue.

‡ Wild goats have been very numerous, but, of late years, wild dogs, which roam the mountains in packs, like wolves, have greatly thinned their number. They also destroy young calves, poultry, and even are dangerous to man.

§ The salt is procured from a natural salt lake four miles to the west of Honolulu. It is in the cone of an extinct crater, and can afford an exhaustless supply of the article. The lake is about one mile in circumference, and during the summer season, salt is formed spontaneously, and in the greatest abundance.

|| But little attention has been paid to raising this article. It flourishes well, however, in many situations, and is of good flavor.

¶ Sugar has fallen from eight cents per pound, within four years, to two cents, and now varies from two to four cents per pound.

\*\* Molasses has fallen from 25 cents to between 18½ and 12½ cents per gallon.

†† Kukui oil is a paint oil, expressed from the candle nut, or *aleurites tribola*. It is a very good substitute for linseed oil. Several mills for its preparation are now in active operation.

‡‡ Though the experiment of fitting vessels for the whale-fishery has, as yet, scarcely been tried from Honolulu, owing to a want of capital and suitable officers, yet its local advantages for this branch of commerce are great, and worthy the attention of merchants.

§§ Any quantity of arrow-root can be manufactured and exported at a cheap rate. It there forms a common article of diet, and is nutritious and healthy. A prejudice against its use exists in the United States, which confines its sale to the shops of apothecaries. It could be afforded at eight or ten cents per pound, and should be sold by grocers and introduced into families.

In addition to these exports, bills of exchange, drawn at a discount by the governors of the Russian settlements, on the imperial government, by masters of ships, pursers, and travellers, afford the means of large annual remittances to the United States, England, and China. Considerable sums in specie are also annually shipped to the latter country.

It will be seen that the exports, as well as imports, are steadily, though not rapidly increasing. The want of a suitable export has been a great hinderance to business; and the chief dependance has been upon the supplies furnished shipping. Yet a market which, within five years, has consumed one million of dollars' worth of the manufactures and provisions of the United States, is worthy of attention and encouragement. The demand for cotton goods, and the cheaper manufactures, is increasing. Annually, the means of purchasing, among the natives, is becoming greater, and with it their desire for the necessities, and even luxuries of civilized lands. Indeed, much of the money bestowed upon modern missions may be considered, in a mercantile view, as a profitable investment for merchants. American missionaries are constantly, though indirectly, by their labors, opening new, and increasing old markets for American manufactures; and, simply as a matter of policy, if no higher motive presents itself, it is well for American merchants liberally to contribute to missionary enterprises. Their gifts will most undoubtedly be returned to them, swelled and prospered by the grateful wishes and thanks of races being rescued from barbarism to civilization. Both the English and French governments view their mission societies as valuable auxiliaries to promote the interests of their policy and to enlarge the bounds of their influence, as well as affording no inconsiderable aids to commerce; and, as such, they assist and protect them. The American merchant will find it expedient to do the same by his own countrymen who engage in the work of benevolence among savage tribes, if he would not see them altogether supplanted by those of rival nations.

The question presents itself, what are the natural capabilities of the group for sustaining commerce and agriculture, and what has already been accomplished? This, I shall endeavor briefly to state. An exaggerated opinion of the fertility of these islands very generally prevails. As a whole, they are not fertile. A large portion of their surface consists of lava-rock, black and barren, and incapable of supporting vegetation. The largest island, Hawaii, is very generally of this character; and, except a few spots near the shore, and some valleys, has no rich soil. These latter are indeed luxuriant; and nature, in them, seems to strive to redeem the sterility of the remaining portion. However, much of the other land here, as on the leeward islands, is suitable for grazing; and herds and flocks must eventually constitute a large share of the natural wealth of the kingdom. Cotton, indigo, coffee, and wheat, flourish remarkably well, and require but attention and capital devoted to their cultivation, to cause them to become profitable exports. The coffee-trees bear most luxuriantly at Hilo, Hawaii, from six to ten pounds per tree being not an uncommon crop. On the uplands of Maui, at an elevation of two thousand feet, wheat of an excellent quality grows wild, and abundantly. No better region for the Irish potato exists, than is to be found on this island. They here acquire great size, the largest weighing from three to four pounds, and in flavor and dryness resemble the Nova Scotia potato. They can be raised for twenty-five cents the barrel. Cabinet-woods, equal to the finest Brazilian, are to

be met with in the forests. As an article for export, the attention of the merchants has chiefly been turned towards the cultivation of the sugar-cane, and, to some extent, the manufacture of silk.

The site of the principal operations is the district of Koloa, on Kanai, the leewardmost and most fertile island. Koloa signifies "great cane," which here grows to a large size, and yields well. In 1835, a lease of an extensive tract of land was obtained here, by a mercantile firm of Honolulu, for the purpose of raising the sugar-cane. Some experiments in this branch of agriculture had been before attempted, but which failed, owing to the opposition of the government to the designs of their proprietors, to distil ardent spirits. But, in this instance, no such objection was necessary, and encouragement was afforded them. Two or three years were spent in planting, inducing the natives to labor, and the erection of mills, and but little sugar was manufactured. The apparent success, however, attending this one, induced others to operate in the same manner; and in 1841 several iron mills had been imported, and were in operation, worked by water-power. These were on Kanai and Maui, while a number of wooden ones, on a smaller scale, were erected on the other islands. The quantity of land under cultivation for sugar, amounted to upwards of one thousand acres, most of which was held in small plantations or farms, by the natives themselves. His Hawaiian Majesty became largely interested, and established an iron mill on his own account at Wailuku, Maui. The best mills are able to turn out from one to four tons daily, during the working season. Water-power is plentiful. The sugar thus far manufactured has been mostly brown, inferior to the Havana, and has gradually fallen in price from six cents to two, at the mills. It now varies from the latter price to four cents, according to the quality. The molasses and syrup sells from twelve and a half to thirty-seven and a half cents per gallon, and none superior is anywhere manufactured.

The soil commonly yields from one thousand to one thousand five hundred pounds to the acre; and, in some instances, from three to five thousand pounds have been taken off—but these are rare. Within the present year, the firm which first established its cultivation at this group, have sold out all their rights and titles to the lands they held, to a company in Belgium, for a very large amount. His Majesty, King Leopold, is interested in the speculation, which starts with a very large capital, said to amount to 25,000,000 francs. By virtue of a lease of all the unoccupied lands on these islands, said to have been given by the king, Kamehameha III, this company are about entering on an extensive scheme of colonization, which, it is hoped, will revive the commerce of Belgium. If they are successful in their operation, the islands will be, in a great measure, peopled by Belgians, and thus present the singular spectacle of a comparatively non-commercial nation holding a colony at the farthest distance it could have been placed. But there are many obstacles to its success. Though the cultivation of sugar-farms, by native proprietors, in a small way, has afforded them more profit than many other branches of domestic industry, yet, with the foreigners, it has not proved a lucrative business. The lands were obtained only on high rents, averaging from twenty-five cents to a dollar per acre, and then only for a limited period. Wages are comparatively high, twelve and a half cents per diem; while in Manilla, and other sugar countries in the East Indies, they are but four cents. Machinery was obliged to be imported from England or the United States, at

a great advance on its original cost. After the sugar was manufactured, it was subjected to several heavy freights, and long delays, before it could find a market; and as yet it has been unable to compete successfully, in the markets of Chili, or Sydney in the Pacific, with the sugars of Peru, Mexico, or Manilla. When sent to the United States, it yields no profit, on account of the high duties it is subjected to. Native labor has been annually rising in value, owing to the new sources of industry which every year open to the Hawaiians. Sugar cannot be raised on an extensive scale at these islands, except by the introduction of a great amount of foreign labor. The native population is sparse, and finds more abundant sources of profit in laboring on their own lands, or in engaging in other branches of industry, than in becoming mere field-hands, at a rate of wages which, when the high prices of foreign commodities are considered, scarcely affords them a suitable remuneration. It is evident, then, that this scheme can only be put into successful operation by the virtual colonization of the islands by a foreign power; and that, too, by a people with whom no previous associations have been formed, and whose religion and habits are as hostile to the institutions of the Sandwich islands, as their language and climate are dissimilar. It is of but small service to them for the United States, England, or France, to acknowledge their national independence, while they receive within their territory a commercial monopoly, headed by a king, and sustained by a powerful government, which cannot be successful but by revolutionizing their own manners, rights, religion, and even language. Colonization schemes, when undertaken by companies, even for countries far less remote, have generally been found expensive, ruinous, and often, in the end, impracticable. That this will be an exception, may well be doubted. The inhabitants of the United States feel a deep interest in the issue. It is their wish and their policy that they should be *let alone*;—that the experiment, whether a savage race can become a civilized and Christianized people, when unmolested and uncorrupted by the powerful or vicious, should be fairly tried;—that the means there at work take their own course, and the enterprise and benevolence of private citizens be left to stand or fall by their own merits. It is a too deeply interesting problem, to be rudely and forcibly interrupted; and it is to be hoped that the actual practicability, and real prospects of success of this Belgium speculation, which, in some of its features, as far as it has been made known, seems analogous to the South Sea scheme and Darien bubble of a past century, will be fairly tested, and thoroughly examined, before lives and fortunes are embarked in the design, which can only be successful by the subversion of the liberties of an interesting people, and, if a failure, will carry want and misery into many families.

The silk business was entered into with as much enthusiasm, in 1837, and with more reasonable hopes of success than the sugar. It was found that the mulberry-tree flourished well, that the silk-worms throve, the temperature of the climate was uniform, and the labor light and easy. Koloa was also selected for the first operations. A company was formed, and an agent selected to manage its concerns. He was sent to the United States to acquire information in regard to the business, to purchase the necessary machinery, to procure plants, and new varieties of eggs; also a family, to superintend the reeling, and teach the art to the natives. In all this, he was successful; and so highly was the enterprise esteemed at that date, that the proprietors could have realized a large advance for their lease

and improvements. Unfortunately, they were too sanguine; and, three years after commencing business, all their capital was sunk, owing to incompetent management, and the enterprise proved a total failure. The location proved a bad one for the growth of the trees and the health of the worms.

An individual, however, not discouraged by the ill success of this undertaking, selected a more favorable situation, in a fertile and sheltered valley, and in eighteen months succeeded in raising silk beyond his expectations, and has since prosecuted the business, with a fair prospect not only of its ultimate success with himself, but of its production becoming a staple of the country. So rich is the soil of the valley where his plantation is located, (that of Waioli, Kanai,) that but a comparatively small extent of ground is required to feed all the worms he can take care of. Indeed, without witnessing for oneself the rapid growth of vegetation there, it would almost stagger belief. By repeated measurements, it has been found that the mulberry shoots grow upwards of an inch per day, and thousands at the rate of four feet a month. It has been ascertained, on cutting down rows of the trees for food, level with the earth, that, in three months afterwards, they attained an average height of over twelve feet, with a most luxuriant growth of leaves. The leaves of one, taken indiscriminately from the row, when plucked, weighed eight pounds, and the new wood eleven and three quarters. The trees are planted from slips, very close, in uniform lines, so as to form thick hedges, about six feet apart. They were found best to preserve their vigor and freshness by being cut down once in three to four months. When allowed to remain longer, their leaves became hard and tough.

The varieties of the mulberry planted, were the white, black, Canton, and *morus multicaulis*; all of which thrive equally well, and afford equally good nutriment for the worms.

It was soon discovered that the species of the worm used in the United States would not answer for this climate, it being impossible to cause their eggs to hatch with any degree of regularity. A cross between them and a smaller and more delicate species, from China, was then raised, which has been found to answer admirably. Their cocoons are large, and of either a pale straw or bright orange color, both of beautiful lustre, and great firmness. From four to six thousand make a pound of reeled silk, worth at Mazatlan, Mexico, from seven to eight dollars, and in the United States from five to six. The native women and boys make expert reelers, turning off from one-half a pound to a pound each, per diem. The worms are fed in large thatched buildings, erected at a small expense, and the reeling is done in similar houses. For nine months in the year, the worms can be fed to advantage; a crop of from three hundred thousand to one million being raised monthly. This plantation, on which but a trifling expense has been laid out, has already accumulated for a market a valuable lot of the raw material. It affords employment to many women and children, besides men.

The Sandwich islands have abundant resources within themselves, to support a population tenfold greater than the present. To be a flourishing kingdom, they must become both an agricultural and commercial nation. Whether the indigenous population are of themselves capable of sustaining such relations successfully, when in competition with the grasping policy, the avaricious spirit, and chivalrous enterprise of older nations, remains to

be proved. The aggregate wealth, refinement, and respectability of the Hawaiians, have made, of late years, slow, though sure and progressive advances. Their population, which was rapidly hastening towards extermination, has now a tendency to recover itself; and, although depopulation is still going on, the ratio is small, when compared with former years. The present native population numbers about one hundred thousand, being about one-third of what they were in 1778. Heathenism, however, has now ceased to claim its victims for its horrible religious rites—the wars in which tens of thousands were either slain in battle, massacred, or perished by famine, are now ended—the fearful diseases introduced by white men have either exhausted themselves, or been checked by medical aid—the onerous taxes, which crushed the bone and sinew of the nation, are discontinued; and a beneficent and humane legislation, based upon the principles of Christianity, is now pouring a fresh stream of life-blood into the arteries of the nation.

The natural resources of these islands, both in fertility, population, and products, are too inconsiderable to produce any sudden and rapid commercial growth. Their prosperity will chiefly be commensurate and contemporary with the progress of the coasts of the neighboring continents, and the civilization of the southern archipelagoes. A fair proportion of increasing trade in that quarter must necessarily, from their peculiarly advantageous situation, fall to their lot. The completion of the Panama canal, which is destined to unite the waters of the Pacific with the Atlantic, would greatly increase their commerce. Already are they the stopping point, the resting-place of the valuable trade between Mexico, Peru, and China. Let the canal be finished, and it would be found that much of the prosperity which the French so confidently predict for the Marquesas and Society groups, which they have so recently seized, would centre at the Sandwich islands. The course of the trade-winds and the currents, so favorable for vessels bound from the western coasts of America to China, the Philippine islands, or the East Indies, are equally so for their touching, for purposes of trade, refreshments, or repairs, at these islands; while the other groups cannot be reached except by a departure from the ordinary track, and a consequent delay.

The foreign population of the group, at the present year, numbers about one thousand, of which two-thirds are Americans; the remainder Englishmen, Chinese, Spaniards, French, Portuguese—in short, a mixture of all races. The caste of half-breeds is rapidly increasing, both in numbers and respectability. Seven years ago, the value of American property of all kinds, invested at the islands, was computed at four hundred thousand dollars. Now, it is reckoned at upwards of one million, and is invested in permanent improvements, houses, agricultural pursuits, shipping, stocks of trade, &c.;—the value of other foreign property, at about one-fifth of that sum. The property held in trust by the American Board of Foreign Missions is considerable, amounting to one hundred thousand dollars, and is invested in some forty dwelling-houses, printing-offices and presses, bindery, a high-school, libraries and apparatus, furniture, cattle, &c., for the use of their missionaries. There are sixty American families, including the missionaries, scattered over the group, and six of other nations.

Lahaina, on Maui, is the capital of the kingdom, and the residence of the king and his court. It has no harbor, but an open, though safe roadstead. It is the favorite resort for American whalers, supplies being both

cheap and plentiful. About forty recruit here annually. A vice-consul of the United States resides here, and several merchants, with their families. The port-charges are much lighter than at Honolulu—the police of the place is effective, and the municipal regulations excellent. No seamen are allowed to remain ashore at night, except by special permission; and all grogeries, as far as possible, are suppressed. Its population is about three thousand.

Honolulu, situated on the southeastern side of Oahu, is the commercial emporium. Its population is ten thousand. The harbor, which is formed by a projecting reef, with a narrow and somewhat intricate entrance, is capacious and safe, and capable of accommodating from fifty to seventy-five sail of vessels at once. On the side of the town it is lined with well-built wharves, at which ships can lie, and discharge their cargoes, at all times of the tide, the greatest rise or fall of which is seldom above four feet. Near the wharves, are numerous well-built stone warehouses, a convenient ship-yard, a stone fort, mounting sixty guns, and the government buildings and private residence of His Hawaiian Majesty. The public buildings consist of two capacious Protestant churches, one of stone, and the other of *adobies*, a seaman's chapel, a Roman Catholic cathedral of stone, several well-built school-houses, &c. The residences of the foreigners and chiefs are built after the European manner, adapted to the warmth of the climate.

English, French, and American consular agents, reside here. The honorable Hudson's Bay company have an extensive agency here, in connection with their establishment at Fort Vancouver, on the Columbia river. Of stores and ships held by foreigners, there are thirty-four. Artisans of every grade are to be found. The general appearance of the town presents a combination of orientalism and modern civilization, which is far from being displeasing. It owes its origin and growth entirely to foreign commerce, and its increase has been rapid and uniform. The streets are wide, and chiefly run at right angles with each other.

Including Bird island, which lies one hundred and twenty-five miles to the northwest of Kanai, the group consists of twelve. The former is a barren rock, the resort only of birds. There are three others of similar character. Lehua, "Egg island," and Kaula, near Niihau, both frequented by wild fowl. The latter supports also a numerous colony of rabbits. Molokini, a mere rock, lies between Maui and Kahoolawe. The other islands, their extent, capitals, and estimated population, are as follows:—

Hawaii, from which the group derives its name, is eighty-eight miles in length, and seventy-three in breadth. It is triangular in shape, and it comprises an area of four thousand square miles. Its mountains attain an elevation of thirteen thousand nine hundred feet, and on it exists the largest known active volcano on the globe. Its population is forty thousand. Kailua is the capital town, with a population of two thousand.

Maui is forty-eight miles long, by thirty in breadth. Area, six hundred square miles. Mauna Haleakla, "hour of the sun," is its highest elevation, being ten thousand five hundred feet. Lahaina is its capital, and its population is near twenty-five thousand.

Kahoolawe, but little better than a barren rock, eleven miles long by eight in breadth, sustains a fishing and convict population of about two hundred.

Lanai is seventeen miles long by nine in breadth. Population, one thousand.

Molokai comprises one hundred and ninety square miles. Population, four thousand.

Oahu, forty-six miles long, by twenty-five in width, has five hundred and thirty square miles, and a population of thirty thousand. Highest mountains, four thousand feet.

Kanai embraces five hundred square miles, and is nearly circular. Population, nine thousand. Waimea, the capital, contains two thousand inhabitants. Mauna Waialeali, in the centre, attains an elevation of six thousand feet.

Niihau, with ninety square miles, has one thousand inhabitants. The whole group comprises a superficial area of about sixty-one thousand square miles, of which Hawaii alone includes two-thirds. The only available harbors for foreign shipping are those of Honolulu, Oahu, and Hilo, or Byron's Bay, Hawaii. The remaining anchorages are mere roadsteads, generally safe and convenient, but during the winter months somewhat exposed.

The extravagant statements which individuals are sometimes guilty of in regard to statistical information, either from ignorance, or a desire, from selfish or political motives, to create a false interest in far-off places, is highly reprehensible. Of late years, French writers have particularly indulged in this strain, it would seem, to create a national longing for colonial possessions in the Pacific. They have been in part successful, and the expensive establishments at the Marquesas and Tahiti owe their origin, to some extent, to this system of falsifying. In 1839, a report to the French minister of the marine appeared in the journals of that nation in regard to the Pacific, and was extensively copied into the papers of the United States, and found its way, as statistical information, into the pages of this magazine. Coming from such high authority, it is no matter of surprise that it was so universally credited. A portion of it is as follows, and purported to be upon the authority of that celebrated navigator, Captain d'Unville :—

"The principal rendezvous for the whale-ships, (French,) Captain d'Unville states to be the Sandwich islands, Tahiti, and New Zealand. At the former of these stations, sometimes *sixty* French whalers are assembled together; at the second, *twenty*; at the third, *forty*. At all these places, when the whalers are in, the most unbounded licentiousness and disorder prevail among the crews, and call imperiously for the establishment of consuls, or other authorized agents, on the spot."

"Captain d'Unville strongly urges the necessity of sending out agents of this kind without delay, more particularly to the Bay of Islands, in New Zealand, where a British resident, who performs the functions of a constable and chief magistrate, has long been settled. England and the United States, the captain adds, had several vessels of war, during the course of each year, to visit these fisheries; whereas France sends only one occasionally—he therefore recommends the government to adopt more efficient measures of this kind."—*Paris paper, Nov. 23.*

That such a tissue of misrepresentations should have been officially issued, seems past belief. But it no doubt had the intended effect. The facts are the following, as will be seen by reference to the tables already given :—In 1837 and 1838, *four* French whalers touched at Honolulu, *one*

at Lahaina, and one at Waimea, Kanai. But one afterwards appeared up to December, 1841; making *seven* French whalers in five years, only. Previous to that date, it was a rare thing to see a French vessel of any class at the Hawaiian islands. During the same period, two French merchantmen also visited Honolulu. The proportion of French vessels at Tahiti and New Zealand was no greater. Four French men-of-war visited Honolulu during the same time, or one man-of-war, nearly, for every two whalers or merchantmen. Pretty "efficient" protection, when compared with the English or United States commercial statistics. During seven years, the American men-of-war, including the repeated visits of the almost unarmed exploring expedition, have been, in proportion to the numbers of other vessels from the United States, as one to *twenty-eight*—of the English, as one to sixteen; by which facts, it will be seen that the French marine, instead of being the least guarded and looked after, is the best. At that date, also, French consular agents were residing both at Tahiti and Honolulu—M. Morenhart occupying the former position, M. Dudoit the latter.

In regard to the "unbounded licentiousness and disorder" of French crews, said to prevail both at Oahu and Tahiti, no symptoms of such conduct appeared among the crews of the vessels before recapitulated. Indeed, for good conduct and sobriety, they compared favorably with the best of those of the United States or England; and the only difficulties which have arisen have sprung from those very men-of-war, and their officers and crews, sent to protect and preserve order among a few whalers and merchantmen, scattered over an ocean of ten thousand miles width, and one hundred and eighty degrees of latitude from north to south.

Since the preceding article was prepared, the intelligence of the seizure of the Hawaiian islands by Lord George Paulet, commanding Her Britannic Majesty's ship *Carysfort*, has reached this country. As this act will have so important a bearing upon the history of this group, and particularly upon the general interests of Americans residing there, and the trade and commerce of our country in the Pacific, I shall briefly recapitulate the facts which led to so high-handed and intemperate a measure. Rightly to understand the relative position of American citizens and British subjects residing at those islands, with the policy, acts, and character of Richard Charlton, the infamous consul of England, the originator and prime mover of most of these troubles and disturbances, I take the liberty to refer the reader to "*The History of the Hawaiian and Sandwich Islands, Tappan & Dennet, Boston, 1843.*" In it has been traced from its origin the jealousy of a certain class of Englishmen towards the progressive ascendancy of American influence and trade at those islands. This act of Lord Paulet's is but a consummation of that jealousy—a fulfilment of a long-cherished plan, on the part of a few worthless individuals, resulting from a settled and determined hatred to all that is American; for the ruin of which, it was necessary that the English flag should wave in triumph over these islands, and under their auspices. Until this act is avowed by the English government, judging from the mass of evidence before me, and an intimate knowledge of the characters from whom it originated, I cannot view it otherwise than a partisan blow, or, to speak more strictly, a piratical operation on the part of Lord Paulet, unauthorized by his government, and brought about by the influence obtained by the individ-

uals before alluded to over him, "*an empty-headed popinjay*," to use the words of one of his most respectable countrymen at Oahu, holding an important station under the honorable Hudson's Bay company in that quarter, in a communication upon this subject, in which he expresses the dissatisfaction, regret, and shame, of the better class of Englishmen there, at the lawless act of their naval commander, and makes a manly and indignant remonstrance, in the name of humanity, and the honor and justice of Great Britain. As his communication is forwarded for publication in England, it will be unnecessary to allude farther to it, than to observe that it is an important document from a responsible quarter, and shows that the views entertained by our government and people, for recognizing and maintaining the independence of the Hawaiian nation inviolate, meet the hearty concurrence of those Englishmen who have most at stake in that quarter, and that they view the motives and characters of their countrymen engaged in this business in the same light that we do.

In the fall of 1842, Charlton, the English consul, left Honolulu in a disreputable manner, for England, leaving behind him, as acting consul, one Alexander Simpson, an able man, who cordially united with him in his endeavors to ruin the Hawaiian nation, destroy their government, and drive away the Americans. That Charlton should be hostile to every good purpose, was to be expected—he had too often, by his lawless acts, rendered himself obnoxious to the punishment which his official situation alone screened him from. But with Simpson, it was a design coolly formed, and carried through; and it had been in his mind for years previous, while in the employment of the honorable Hudson's Bay company. But the governor of that body, Sir George Simpson, his uncle, from visiting the islands, had convinced himself of the ability of the Hawaiian government to maintain orderly and friendly relations, not only with the foreigners residing among them, but with all nations; and that it was for the general interest of the commercial world that they should remain free and independent. In conjunction with Messrs. Richards and Haaldis, he accepted the situation of an envoy to the principal courts of Europe, in order to bring about the formal recognition of their independence, and to place the commercial interests of the several countries upon an honorable and equitable basis. He preceded the lastnamed gentlemen in their mission, but joined them in London, in February of this year. Simpson, upon being left by Charlton, failed in obtaining a recognition of his official situation from the Hawaiian government, and very properly. Charlton had left the country with debts to a large amount, having engaged his passage in the name of Simpson, going off with the latter when the vessel was outside the harbor, under the plea of bidding him farewell—but he remained, and Simpson returned. His acts, from that time to the arrival of Paulet, were a mere repetition of the unworthy and insulting conduct of his predecessor—defying the laws, insulting the officers of government, and exciting the contempt and disgust of all the respectable residents. It was evidently his object to irritate the government into some act which might, by his representation, serve to criminate them in the eyes of his own. Failing in this, he wrote a plausible letter to the consul-general of England for the west coast of Mexico, Mr. Barron, in which he urged the immediate presence of a naval force, to redress the grievances of English subjects. His letter was forwarded to the admiral of the station, who ordered the Carysfort to repair thither, under what in-

structions it is unknown, but it is conjectured with discretionary orders, and to be regulated by the statements of the acting consul. At any rate, he boarded him, and remained with him all the night of his arrival. From that time, until the forced cession was completed, Lord Paulet allowed no communication to reach him from any other quarter, but placed himself completely under his guidance. The messenger from the governor of Oahu, the American and French consuls, a number of American and English merchants, who called on board to pay their respects, as is customary, to the commander of every war-vessel at this port, were grossly insulted and repulsed. The following correspondence then ensued:—

OFFICIAL CORRESPONDENCE RELATING TO THE PROVISIONAL CESSATION OF THE SANDWICH ISLANDS.

[Published by Authority.]

H. B. M. SHIP CARYSFORT, }  
Woahoo, 11th February, 1843. }

Sir—Having arrived at this port in Her Britannic Majesty's ship Carysfort, under my command, for the purpose of affording protection to British subjects, as likewise to support the position of Her Britannic Majesty's representative here, who has received repeated insults from the government authorities of these islands, respecting which it is my intention to communicate only with the king in person.

I require to have immediate information, by return of the officer conveying this despatch, whether or not the king (in consequence of my arrival) has been notified that his presence will be required here, and the earliest day on which he may be expected; as otherwise I shall be compelled to proceed to his residence in the ship under my command, for the purpose of communicating with him.

I have the honor to be, Sir,

Your most obedient, humble servant,

GEO. PAULET, Captain.

To Kekuanaoa, Governor of Woahoo, &c.

HONOLULU, OAHU, Feb. 11, 1843.

Salutations to you, Lord George Paulet, Captain of Her Britannic Majesty's ship Carysfort—I have received your letter by the hand of the officer, and with respect inform you that we have not as yet sent for the king, as we were not informed of the business; but having learnt from your communication that you wish him sent for, I will search for a vessel, and send. He is at Walluku, on the east side of Main. In case the wind is favorable, he may be expected in six days.

Yours, with respect,

M. KEKUANAOKA.

Translated by G. P. Judd, Recorder and Translator for Government.

H. B. M. SHIP CARYSFORT, }  
Honolulu Harbor, Feb. 16, 1843. }

Sir—I have the honor to acquaint your majesty of the arrival in this port of Her Britannic Majesty's ship under my command; and, according to my instructions, I am desired to demand a private interview with you, to which I shall proceed with a proper and competent interpreter.

I therefore request to be informed at what hour to-morrow it will be convenient for your majesty to grant me that interview.

I have the honor to be

Your majesty's most obedient and humble servant,

GEORGE PAULET, Captain.

To His Majesty Kamehameha.

HONOLULU, Feb. 17, 1843.

Salutations to you, Lord George Paulet, Captain of Her Britannic Majesty's ship Carysfort.

Sir—We have received your communication of yesterday, and must decline having any private interview, particularly under the circumstances which you propose.

We shall be ready to receive any written communication from you to-morrow, and will give it due consideration.

In case you have business of a private nature, we will appoint Dr. Judd our confidential agent, to confer with you; who, being a person of integrity and fidelity to our government, and perfectly acquainted with all our affairs, will receive your communications, give you all the information you require, (in confidence,) and report the same to us.

With respect,

KAMEHAMEHA,  
KEKAULUAHI.

I hereby certify the above to be a faithful translation.

G. P. Judd, Translator and Interpreter for the Government.

H. B. M. SHIP CARYSFORT, }  
Woahoo, February 17, 1843. }

Sir—In answer to your letter of this day's date, (which I have too good an opinion of your majesty to allow me to believe ever emanated from yourself, but from your ill advisers,) I have to state that I shall hold no communication whatever with Dr. G. P. Judd, who, it has been satisfactorily proved to me, has been the prime mover in the unlawful proceedings of your government against British subjects.

As you have refused me a personal interview, I enclose you the demands which I consider it my duty to make upon your government, with which I demand a compliance at or before four o'clock, P. M., to-morrow, (Saturday,) otherwise I shall be obliged to take immediate coercive steps to obtain these measures for my countrymen.

I have the honor to be

Your majesty's most obedient humble servant,

GEORGE PAULET, Captain.

His Majesty Kamehameha.

DEMANDS made by the Right Honorable Lord George Paulet, Captain Royal Navy, commanding Her Britannic Majesty's ship Carysfort, upon the king of the Sandwich Islands.

First—The immediate removal, by public advertisement, written in the native and English languages, and signed by the governor of their island and F. W. Thompson, of the attachment placed upon Mr. Charlton's property; the restoration of the land taken by government for its own use, and really appertaining to Mr. Charlton; and reparation for the heavy loss to which Mr. Charlton's representatives have been exposed by the oppressive and unjust proceedings of the Sandwich island government.

Second—The immediate acknowledgment of the right of Mr. Simpson to perform the functions delegated to him by Mr. Charlton, namely: those of Her Britannic Majesty's acting consul, until Her Majesty's pleasure be known upon the reasonableness of your objections to him. The acknowledgment of that right, and the reparation for the insult offered to Her Majesty, through her acting representative, to be made by a public reception of his commission, and the saluting the British flag with twenty-one guns, which number will be returned by Her Britannic Majesty's ship under my command.

Third—A guarantee that no British subject shall in future be subjected to imprisonment in fetters, unless he is accused of a crime which by the laws of England would be considered a felony.

Fourth—The compliance with a written promise, given by King Kamehameha to Captain Jones, of Her Britannic Majesty's ship Curacoa, that a new and fair trial would be granted in a case brought by Henry Skinner, which promise has been evaded.

Fifth—The immediate adoption of firm steps to arrange the matters in dispute between British subjects and natives of the country, or others residing here, by referring the cases to juries, one-half of whom shall be British subjects approved by the consul, and all of whom shall declare on oath their freedom from prejudgment upon, or interest in, the cases brought before them.

Sixth—A direct communication between His Majesty Kamehameha and Her Britannic Majesty's acting consul, for the immediate settlement of all cases of grievances and complaint on the part of British subjects against the Sandwich islands government.

Dated on board Her Britannic Majesty's ship Carysfort, at Woahoo, this 17th day of February, 1843.

H. B. M. SHIP CARYSFORT, }  
Woahoo, February 17, 1843. }

Sir—I have the honor to notify you that her Britannic Majesty's ship Carysfort, under my command, will be prepared to make an immediate attack upon this town, at four

o'clock, P. M., to-morrow, (Saturday,) in the event of the demand now forwarded by me to the king of these islands not being complied with by that time.

Sir, I have the honor to be

Your most obedient humble servant,

GEORGE PAULET, Captain.

To Captain Long, Commander U. S. S. Boston, Honolulu.

HONOLULU, February 18.

Salutations to Right Hon. Lord George Paulet, Captain of H. B. M. ship Carysfort.

We have received your letter, and the demands which accompanied it; and in reply would inform your lordship that we have commissioned Sir George Simpson and William Richards as our ministers plenipotentiary and envoy extraordinary to the court of Great Britain, with full powers to settle the difficulties which you have presented before us; to assure Her Majesty, the queen, of our uninterrupted affection, and to confer with her ministers as to the best means of cementing the harmony between us. Some of the demands which you have laid before us are of a nature calculated seriously to embarrass our feeble government, by contravening the laws established for the benefit of all. But we shall comply with your demand, as it has never been our intention to insult Her Majesty the queen, or injure any of her estimable subjects; but we must do so under protest, and shall embrace the earliest opportunity of representing our case more fully to H. B. M. government, through our minister, trusting in the magnanimity of the sovereign of a great nation, which we have been taught to respect and love, that we shall there be justified.

Waiting your further orders,

With sentiments of respect,

KAMEHAMEHA 3d.

KEKAULUAHI.

I hereby certify the above to be a faithful translation.

G. P. JUDD, Jr., for the Government.

H. B. M. SHIP CARYSFORT, }

Woahoo, 18th February, 1843. }

Sir—I have the honor to acknowledge your majesty's letter of this day's date, wherein you intimate your intention of complying with my demands, which I have considered my duty to make upon your majesty's government. I appoint the hour of two o'clock this afternoon for the interchange of salutes, and I shall expect that you will inform me at what hour on Monday you will be prepared to receive myself and Her Britannic Majesty's representatives.

I have the honor to be

Your majesty's most obedient humble servant,

GEORGE PAULET, Captain.

His Majesty Kamehameha III.

HONOLULU, Oahu, Feb. 18, 1843.

Salutations to Lord George Paulet, Captain of H. B. M. ship Carysfort.

I have received your communication, and make known to you that I will receive yourself, and H. B. M. representatives, on Monday, the 20th of February, at 11 o'clock, A. M.

Yours, respectfully,

KAMEHAMEHA 3d.

I hereby certify the above to be a faithful translation.

G. P. JUDD, Jr., for the Government.

Where are you, chiefs, people, and commons from my ancestor, and people from foreign lands!

Hear ye, I make known to you that I am in perplexity, by reason of difficulties into which I have been brought without cause, therefore I have given away the life of our land, hear ye! But my rule over you, my people, and your privileges, will continue; for I have hope that the life of the land will be restored when my conduct is justified.

Done at Honolulu, Oahu, this twenty-fifth day of February, 1843.

Witness, JOHN D. PAALUA.

KAMEHAMEHA,  
KEKAULUAHI.

I hereby certify the above to be a faithful translation.

G. P. JUDD, Recorder and Translator for the Government.

In consequence of the difficulties in which we find ourselves involved, and our opinion of the impossibility of complying with the demands in the manner in which they are made by Her Britannic Majesty's representatives upon us, in reference to the claims of British subjects, we do hereby cede the group of islands known as the Hawaiian (or Sandwich) islands, unto the Right Honorable Lord George Paulet, captain of Her Majesty's ship-of-war Carysfort, representing Her Majesty Victoria, queen of Great Britain and Ireland, from this date, and for the time being; the same cession being made with the reservation that it is subject to any arrangement that may have been entered into by the representatives appointed by us to treat with the government of Her Britannic Majesty; and in the event that no agreement has been executed previous to the date thereof, subject to the decision of Her Britannic Majesty's government on conference with the said representatives, and being accessible, or not having been acknowledged subject to the decision which Her Britannic Majesty may pronounce on the receipt of full information from us, and from the Right Honorable Lord George Paulet.

In confirmation of the above, we hereby fix our names and seals, this twenty-fifth day of February, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and forty-three, at Honolulu, Oahu, Sandwich islands.

Signed in presence of G. P. Judd, Recorder and Translator for the Government.

KAMEHAMEHA 3d,  
KEKAULUAHI.

A provisional cession of the Hawaiian or Sandwich islands having been made this day by Kamehameha III, king, and Kekauluahi, premier thereof, unto me, the Right Honorable Lord George Paulet, commanding H. B. M. ship Carysfort, on the part of her Britannic Majesty Victoria, queen of Great Britain and Ireland, subject to arrangements which may have been or shall be made in Great Britain with the government of H. B. Majesty:

I do hereby proclaim—

First—That the British flag shall be hoisted on all the islands of the group; and the natives thereof shall enjoy the protection and privileges of British subjects.

Second—That the government thereof shall be executed, until the receipt of the communication from Great Britain, in the following manner, viz:—By the native king and chiefs, and the officers employed by them, so far as regards the native population; and by a commission consisting of King Kamehameha III, or a deputy appointed by him, the Right Hon. Lord George Paulet, Duncan Forbes Mackay, Esq., and Lieut. Frere, R. N., in all that concerns relations with other powers, save and except the negotiations with the British government, and the arrangements among foreigners, other than natives of the Archipelago, residents on these islands.

Third—That the laws at present existing, or which may be made at the ensuing council of the king and chiefs, after being communicated to the commission, shall be in full force so far as natives are concerned; and shall form the basis of the administration of justice by the commission, in matters between foreigners resident on these islands.

Fourth—In all that relates to the collection of the revenue, the present officers shall be continued at the pleasure of the native king and chiefs, their salaries for the current year being also determined by them, and the archives of the government remaining in their hands. The accounts are, however, subject to inspection by the commission heretofore named. The government vessels shall be in like manner subject, however, to their employment, if required, for Her Britannic Majesty's service.

Fifth—That no sales, leases, or transfers of land, shall take place by the action of the commission aforesaid, nor from natives to foreigners, during the period intervening between the twenty-fourth of this month, and the receipt of the notification from Great Britain of the arrangements made there. They shall not be valid, nor shall they receive the signatures of the king and premier.

Sixth—All the existing bona fide engagements of the native king and premier shall be executed and performed, as if this cession had never been made.

Given under my hand this twenty-fifth of February, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and forty-three, at Honolulu, Oahu, Sandwich Islands.

GEORGE PAULET,  
Captain of H. B. M. ship Carysfort.

Signed in presence of

G. P. JUDD, Rec. and Int. to the Government.

ALEX. SIMPSON, H. B. M. Acting Consul.

A true copy of the original.

G. PAULET, Captain.

Fraud and injustice are stamped upon the face of it, but the circumstances attending it were still more gross. Demands were brought which are not in print, and which they would not put to writing, one after another, claiming heavy damages for alleged causes of the most frivolous and contemptible nature. In short, Simpson was determined that the English flag should surmount the Hawaiian; and, losing sight of all cautious policy in his ardor for its accomplishment, grossly committed himself, by threatening an appeal to violence, in the support of fraudulent claims. After the cession, the principal grounds of complaint were abandoned by Lord Paulet, particularly the new trial for money in dispute, demanded for Skinner, a British subject, against Dominis, an American citizen, which had been settled a year before, and for which Dominis held Skinner's certificate. Dr. Judd, who was marked in the official correspondence as an enemy to Englishmen, and with whom, as agent for the king, Paulet would have nothing to do, was *requested* by that lord to retain his situation. These, and a few other circumstances, are mentioned merely to show the inconsistency of these men, which strengthens the probability that they acted solely upon their own responsibility, with no definite plan of operations beyond the determination of possessing the islands; expecting, no doubt, in the end, that they would not only be sanctioned by the English government, but highly rewarded for securing to their country so valuable a group.

One of the first acts of the new government was to raise the duties—to limit the number of grogeries to twelve, under high licenses; an act which gave great dissatisfaction to many of the loyal subjects of Great Britain, as it took away their business. A proclamation was issued, requiring all foreigners to produce evidence of their titles to real estate, within a certain period. This will create much confusion among American residents in particular, against whom it is aimed—as all the lands upon which the missionary property, and most of the improvements belonging to merchants, are located, are held by the old law of the country, "*Indian gift*." The king, this very year, was about bestowing full and legal deeds, according to the new constitution, upon all who held property in this precarious way, and which this edict jeopardizes to a great extent. At the same time, the king was compelled to give a deed to the agents of Mr. Charlton, in his favor, of the most valuable portion of the town of Honolulu, comprising a large lot situated on the water-side, and covered with improvements. This had been claimed by Charlton, within a few years, on the strength of a deed, which he said he had in his possession, signed by Kalaimoku, former governor of Oahu. A paper had been exhibited, in which his name was spelt in a manner which no native ever writes—letters being used which are not in their alphabet. Those who recollect the letter of Boki, which made so much stir in this country and England, until its forgery was demonstrated beyond a doubt, will perceive a similarity between the two, which looks strikingly like a common origin. The names of witnesses are attached, but they are of men long since dead; and the document was not produced, or even heard of, until after their decease. Two vessels, belonging to the king, were taken possession of, for the use of the English governor. The mansion and grounds of Haalilio, the Hawaiian commissioner, were occupied by Lord Paulet and suite.

It was their desire that it should appear that the king voluntarily ceded

the islands to Great Britain. When the official correspondence was printed, it contained the short but feeling address of the king to his people. This was given in the presence of Lord Paulet, Mr. Simpson, and all the officers, and interpreted to the former by Dr. Judd, word for word, as it was spoken by the king. If that was allowed to go abroad, it was evident, even to them, that it could not fail to convey the impression that the king yielded only to force, under a protest, and that he appealed for justice to the righteousness of his cause, and the magnanimity of Great Britain. This would not do. Lord Paulet ordered the whole to be suppressed, and issued an *amended* edition of his own; but some copies were circulated, and he had the folly to post up about the streets of Honolulu the following notice:—

OFFICE OF THE BRITISH COMMISSION, &c., {  
March 3, 1843. }

It is hereby publicly intimated that the publication and distribution of a speech stated to have been made by Kamehameha, on the twenty-fifth of February, in a paper entitled "Official correspondence, relating to the late provisional cession of the Sandwich islands," was entirely without the authority of the Right Honorable Lord George Paulet, or the commission appointed by him. That speech was delivered without the sanction of Lord George Paulet, and formed no part of, and had no connection with, the arrangements by which the sovereignty of these islands was provisionally ceded to Great Britain.

By order of the commissioners.

(Signed)

ALEX. SIMPSON, } Joint  
H. SEA, } Secretaries.

He evidently attempts to convey the impression that the speech is a forgery, and caps the climax of inconsistency by stating that it was delivered without his sanction; thus desiring to deprive the poor king of the liberty of speech, as well as his throne.

A demand was made upon the French consul to produce his credentials. His reply was—"When you show me by what authority you make the demand, I will take it into consideration." Mr. Hooper, the American consul, sent his in, and was recognised. It is to be hoped that our consular department abroad will, in future, be filled with individuals possessing sufficient knowledge and firmness to maintain the dignity and independence of their stations. But men whose lives are devoted exclusively to the pursuit of gain, cannot be expected to fill responsible situations with that independence of character which those who have no mercantile interest at stake can exercise.

The following are some of the notices of the Simpson government, and serve to show its spirit:—

OFFICE OF THE BRITISH COMMISSION, &c., {  
March 3d, 1843. }

Public notice is hereby given, that Mr. Jules Dudoit, consul of France to the late government, having intimated to the commission that he declines to lay before it his authority for acting as representative of France in these islands, the commission will not recognise him from this date in that capacity.

By order of the commissioners.

(Signed)

ALEX. SIMPSON, } Joint  
H. SEA, } Secretaries.

OFFICE OF THE BRITISH COMMISSION, &c., {  
March 1st, 1843. }

Public notice is hereby given, that all British subjects, and the subjects or citizens of other countries, (other than the natives of the Archipelago,) having any claims for land in the Sandwich islands, whether by lease, written document, or in virtue of occupancy,

are required to send in such claims to the commissioners, on or before the first of June next; failing which, no claims will be hereafter held valid, (unless the holders of these claims shall be absent from these islands during the intervening space.) The commissioners will not enter upon the validity of these claims at present, but will cause all the deeds and claims, as presented, to be registered for future decision.

By order of the commissioners.

(Signed)

ALEX. SIMPSON, } Joint  
H. SEA, } Secretaries.

The probable effect of the latter upon American property has already been noticed. Business is interrupted, and the whole community is in a state of great excitement. The doors of the residents are shut against Lord Paulet and his officers. He made an attempt to conciliate favor, but was repulsed with a manly indignation. It is to be regretted that the king had not aroused within him the lion spirit of his noble and courageous father, old Kamehameha. Had he been alive, not a demand of an unjust nature would have been submitted to; but force would have been met by force. Some of the chiefs wished to fight; but the spirit of the king, who is an exceedingly amiable man, and beloved by his subjects, had been crushed by the repeated insults and demands of the French, in the cases of Laplace and Mallet, and who probably would have anticipated Lord Paulet, had they been aware of his movements. Kaivkeouli, in peaceful times, is an excellent and patriotic sovereign; but he has not the firmness requisite for emergencies of such a nature as the one in question. Still, had it not been for the amount of property belonging to his personal friends, which would inevitably have been sacrificed, and the destruction of the lives of many of his subjects, perhaps of foreigners, and the exposure of their families to rapine and violence, not so much from the attacking party, as the body of dissolute whites within the town, he would have resisted. Had the scene terminated in bloodshed, and destruction of property, it would have aroused from the civilized world an indignant burst of execration, and awakened a sympathy for a trodden-down people, which would have lifted them up to their proper situation, and secured them there. Had the Hawaiian nation been one of pirates, an occasional war-vessel would have touched at their shores, and bombarded a deserted coast, or destroyed a few villages. But they have been a good, a hospitable people, extending justice and welcome to all, as far as lay in their power. Those whom they have treated the best, have turned upon and rended them. No one who knows them well, can hesitate to say that their troubles and persecutions have been mainly brought about by the plausible but false representations of a set of ingrates, of low and contemptible, and too often of criminal characters, residing among them. America has several millions of dollars at stake, either on those islands, or in vessels that touch there. From five hundred to a thousand of her citizens reside on them. They are a valuable market for her manufactures, and an invaluable resort for her shipping—particularly the whaling interest. Where are they going, when these ports, as well as those of the southern groups, are in effect closed against them, by heavy port-charges, duties and favors given to the shipping of the nations that have seized upon them? The Georgian group, Society, New Zealand, and now the Sandwich islands, have been seized within a short period, by rival nations. Will the American government, after having, by their executive, used such encouraging language as the following to the Hawaiian nation, look on with apathy, and see its rights disregarded, and the interests of American citizens destroyed, through the intrigues and

cabal of envious foreigners? "It cannot but be in conformity with the interest and wishes of the government and the people of the United States, that this community, thus existing in the midst of a vast expanse of ocean, should be respected, and all its rights strictly and conscientiously regarded. And this must also be the true interest of all other commercial states. Far remote from the dominions of European powers, its growth and prosperity, as an independent state, may yet be, in a high degree, useful to all whose trade extends to those regions; while its near approach to the American continent, and the intercourse which American vessels have with it—such vessels constituting five-sixths of all which annually visit it—could not but create dissatisfaction, on the part of the United States, at any attempt by another power, should such attempt be threatened or feared, to take possession of the islands, colonize them, and subvert the native government. This government would be justified, should events hereafter require it, in making a decided remonstrance against the adoption of an opposite policy by any other power."—*From Message to Congress, December 11, 1842.*

And yet, within two months from the publication of this message, a foreign vessel of war enters the harbor of Honolulu, in a time of profound and universal peace, without declaring war, or giving suitable notice of her intentions, proclaims hostilities to take place within a few hours, unless the whole kingdom is surrendered. The lives and property of American citizens are periled—no time allowed for seeking safety—but, without previous warning, the inhabitants are assured that the town will be shortly bombarded, unless the government accede to terms dictated by an individual living among them, whose hatred to them had long been proverbial. Does not this occasion call for the "decided remonstrance" of the American government? Will England, after the assurances given the Hawaiian commissioners, and the tone of her press against French conquests in the Pacific, justify this measure? If honor and justice have not altogether taken flight from her councils, she will promptly bring the authors to trial, and make full and immediate restitution and reparation.

There is good ground for believing that, in this case, England will be governed by a correct principle, and that the indemnity and restoration will be full and prompt. Her desire for territory is great, and may tempt her strongly to hold on to a possession already in her grasp. But she has always treated the Hawaiians with kindness. The time when she could have seized upon them, and with the consent, to some extent, of the people themselves, she let go by—now, the voice of the civilized world would be against the measure. The military occupation of one of our own territories could scarcely have more excited the American press through the length and breadth of the land. A large class of her own subjects are strongly opposed to it. The expense of holding and fortifying it, would be great. France is keenly sensitive upon the subject; and England, from her own acts within two months, cannot, without the grossest inconsistency, as well as the basest ingratitude, entertain for a moment, even, the idea of permanently holding them. The following is a summary of the results of the efforts of the Hawaiian envoys in Europe, derived from first sources:—

"Charlton arrived in England in February of this year, previous to the Hawaiian commissioners; and, by his representations, succeeded in creating a prejudice in the minds of the ministry against them, on the ground

that the islands were exclusively under the control of American merchants and missionaries—that Englishmen were abused, deprived of their just rights, and could not obtain common justice in their courts. But Sir George Simpson and Captain Jones, (a naval commander who had been at Oahu the year before, and from what he had witnessed for himself, afterwards expressed his shame and disgust at the conduct and character of his fellow-subjects residing there,) stepped forward, and disproved the charges. Charlton was immediately disgraced; and the ministry, in March last, expressed their readiness to acknowledge the unconditional independence of the Hawaiian kingdom, and to appoint a proper agent to reside at that court. In this, they followed the example of the United States, France, and Belgium. In addition, Guizot declared to the commissioners his readiness to alter the obnoxious clauses of the Laplace treaty, and place the commercial relations between the two countries upon an equitable footing.”

If, in addition to what has already been observed, it is necessary to add anything else to show the improbability of Lord Paulet's actions being under instructions from the English ministry, his character, and the smallness of his force, should be taken into consideration. Is it reasonable to suppose that England, with the intention of subduing an extensive group, with a population of upwards of one hundred thousand semi-civilized people, possessing fortifications and the munitions of war, with many foreigners in their service, would send on such an expedition so weak-headed an individual as Lord Paulet as commander, and one frigate, the smallest and most inefficient of her class? Any one who knows the islands, is perfectly aware that so small a force, had resistance been made, could not have held possession one day, or even an hour. The vessel might have destroyed the town with her heavy guns; but with an exasperated and aroused population against them, the crew would have been cut off as fast as they landed. The Hawaiians, in past years, have shown no deficiency in military courage and hardihood, and it is not yet extinct; but the mild spirit of the precepts of the gospel influence their councils, and they have a trust, in particular, in the honor and generosity of the English nation, derived from their reverence for Cook, Vancouver, George IV, and Lord Byron. That it may not be misplaced, every friend of humanity will pray; and there is yet hope that this occurrence will terminate in the retraction not only of Great Britain, at the Hawaiian islands, but by France, of her equally unjust seizure of the Georgian cluster.

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## ART. II.—PROGRESS OF POPULATION AND WEALTH IN THE UNITED STATES, IN FIFTY YEARS.

AS EXHIBITED BY THE DECENNIAL CENSUS TAKEN IN THAT PERIOD.

### CHAPTER XIX.

#### THE PRODUCTS OF INDUSTRY.

HAVING traced the progress of the population of the United States from 1790 to 1840, shown its distribution according to age, sex, race, condition, and pursuit, and deduced the laws of its increase, let us now turn our attention to that part of the census of 1840 which estimated the annual

products of industry. These were arranged under the six heads of Mines, Agriculture, Commerce, Fisheries, the Forest, and Manufactures; each of which was subdivided into specific commodities and sources of profit, as follows:—

**MINES.**

Cast iron.	Gold.	Anthracite coal.
Bar iron.	Other metals.	Bituminous coal.
Lead.	Salt.*	Granite, marble, &c.

**AGRICULTURE.**

Horses and mules.	Indian corn.	Silk cocoons.
Neat cattle.	Wool.	Sugar.
Sheep.	Hops.	Firewood.
Swine.	Wax.	Products of the dairy.
Poultry.	Potatoes.	" " orchard.
Wheat.	Hay.	Wine.
Barley.	Hemp and flax.	Produce of market gardens.
Oats.	Tobacco.	" nurseries, &c.
Rye.	Rice.	Domestic goods.
Buckwheat.	Cotton.	

**COMMERCE.**

Capital in foreign trade.	Capital in internal transportation.
" retail trade.	" the business of butchers, packers, &c.
" lumber trade.	

**FISHERIES.**

Smoked and dried fish.	Spermaceti oil.	Whalebone and other products of the fisheries.
Pickled fish.	Other fish oil.	

**THE FOREST.**

Lumber.	Pot and pearl ashes.	Ginseng, and other products of the forest.
Tar, pitch, &c.	Skins and furs.	

**MANUFACTURES.**

Machinery.	Sole leather.	Paper.
Hardware, cutlery, &c.	Upper leather.	Manf. of paper.
Cannon.	Manf. of leather.	Bookbinding.
Small arms.	Soap.	Printing.
Manf. of precious metals.	Tallow candles.	Cordage.
" of various metals.	Spermaceti & wax candles.	Musical instruments.
" of granite, marble, &c.	Distilled spirits.	Carriages.
Bricks and lime.	Brewed liquors.	Flour mills.
Manf. of wool.	Gunpowder.	Grist mills.
" of cotton.	Drugs, paints, dyes, &c.	Saw mills.
" of silk.	Turpentine and varnish.	Oil mills.
" of flax.	Glass.	Ships.
Mixed manufactures.	Pottery.	Furniture.
Manf. of tobacco.	Refined sugar.	Houses.
Hats and caps.	Chocolate.	Other manufactures.
Straw bonnets.		

In about half of the preceding articles, the number or quantity is given by the census; in the rest, only the value annually produced. To all, except the products of agriculture, the number of men employed, and the amount of capital invested in each occupation, are severally annexed. Some further details are added to a few branches of business, as may be seen in the following compendium of this part of the census of 1840.†

\* This comprehends salt manufactured from sea-water as well as mineral salt.

† This part of the last census having been already published in the April number of this Magazine for the last year, is now omitted.

We thus have a mass of materials for estimating the annual income of the United States, which has been rarely, if ever, afforded to seventeen millions of people. Yet, with all this valuable aid, precise accuracy is still unattainable; for those diversities and fluctuations of price, from which no country is exempt, are particularly great in this country. Articles of raw produce, which vary in price, from year to year, far more than manufactures, constitute here the unusually large proportion of more than two-thirds of the whole annual product. In a country, moreover, of such large extent as the United States, differing so widely in soil, climate, density of numbers, and easy access of market, the price of the same commodity varies considerably among the different states in the same year. Nay, more—with the larger states, the same local diversities apply to different parts of the same state, and often make the price of the more bulky commodities, at one place of production, more than twice as high as the price they bear at another. To make, then, a fair average, it is necessary to take into account the quantities produced in the several parts, as well as the difference of price. There are also sources of revenue, in which the census has given not the annual product, but the whole value of the capital invested, as in the case of live stock, and of the capitals employed in commerce; in which items, there being room for further difference of opinion, there is a further source of uncertainty. Even in those manufactures of which the census has determined their gross values, we may expect, in deducting the value of the raw materials which have been estimated under other heads, somewhat of the same difference of opinion, and consequently of the same uncertainty. The most careful estimate practicable must therefore rest, in part, on conjecture and probability. Yet, if the estimate be cautiously made, and be founded on the opinion of judicious persons, who look not beyond their own experience and observation, the unavoidable errors will probably so balance and compensate each other, that the result will afford an approximation to the truth, which is all that the subject admits of, and indeed all that it is important for us to know.

In making the subjoined estimate, the following course has been pursued:—Of those articles of which the census has given only the quantities, the market price at the place produced, or where the producer transports it by his own labor, is considered the fair value. To ascertain this, local information, from persons competent to give it, has been procured, as far as practicable. The prices affixed ought, in strictness, perhaps, to have been those which prevailed in 1840, when the census was taken; but, as the prices of most articles of commerce were not uninfluenced, even then, by the distention of the currency which succeeded the termination of the Bank of the United States, in 1836, it was thought that a medium between the prices of 1840 and those of the present day, when they are unusually depressed, would give a fair average.

In estimating the product of live stock, one-fourth of its gross value has been assumed to be its annual value. This may be somewhat too much for horses and mules, but it is far too little for sheep and hogs, and may be not quite enough for neat cattle. The products of this branch of husbandry is compounded in a small degree of rent, but principally of the wages of personal service and the profits of capital; and, considering the high price which both labor and capital bear in this country, 25 per cent seems to be not too high. In England, it is supposed that one-fourth of the

cattle is slaughtered in the year. As those fatted for the shambles are worth about double the general average, this rule would give twice the amount of the present estimate; but then it would be necessary to deduct the value of the food consumed in the process of fattening, which would bring us to nearly the same result. From the gross value of domestic manufactures, included in the products of agriculture, one-half is deducted for the raw materials.

In estimating the products of commerce, as they also are compounded of the wages of industry and the profits of capital, they have, in like manner, been set down at 25 per cent on the capital employed. Without doubt, this greatly exceeds the rate of profits in the wholesale and foreign trade, but it is also far short of the retail trade, in which, for the most part, the capital is turned over several times in the year. The census shows that upwards of 100,000 families are engaged in the employments comprehended under the head of commerce; and a less profit than the one supposed, would not be adequate to the support of that number in a style of living which far exceeds the average rate of that of the whole community.

From the gross value of manufactured products, one-third has been deducted for the value of the raw materials, leaving two-thirds for the wages of labor and the profits of capital. These are the average proportions in the official statements of the manufactures of New York. From this valuation, however, the articles manufactured by mills have been excepted. Three-fourths of the gross value of these articles have been deducted. Even this would not be enough, if the products of sawmills and oilmills, in which human labor bears a much larger proportional part, were not comprehended. A separate estimate is made of the products of printing and bookbinding, by allowing 25 per cent on the capital invested, and \$200 for each man employed.

In estimating the annual products of the mines, the fisheries, and the forest, the whole value at the place of production, or of sale by the producer, has been the measure—that value being made up of the profits of land, of labor, and of capital.

In all cases, the prices at which the principal products of each state have been estimated, may be seen by comparing the values with the quantities, so that every one may correct the estimate wherever he deems it erroneous.

It is proper to remark that the census omits several products of industry, whose aggregate value would make no insignificant addition to the total amount. Among these, are—1. The blades of Indian corn, an excellent fodder for horses and cattle; and which, estimating twenty pounds for every bushel of grain, amounts to 3,775,000 tons, worth \$37,750,000. 2. Peas and beans. 3. Flaxseed. 4. Broom-corn. 5. Sumach. 6. Honey. 7. Feathers.

In the subjoined table, the values of the principal products of agriculture and of manufactures, and occasionally of other branches of industry, are specifically stated, while the rest are included under the general heads.

## NEW ENGLAND STATES.

## ANNUAL PRODUCTS OF INDUSTRY IN MAINE.

<b>I. Agriculture.</b>			
Horses and mules,.....No.	59,208	\$2,960,400	
Neat cattle,.....	327,255	4,908,825	
Sheep,.....	649,264	973,896	
Hogs,.....	117,386	352,158	
25 per cent of.....		\$9,195,279	
is.....		\$2,298,819	
Poultry,.....		123,171	\$2,421,980
Wheat,.....bush.	848,166	\$1,061,207	
Oats,.....	1,076,409	376,743	
Maize,.....	950,528	712,896	
Other grain,.....	544,645	435,716	
Potatoes,.....	10,392,280	2,078,556	4,665,118
Wool,.....lbs.	1,465,551	\$492,942	
Products of dairy,.....		1,496,902	
" orchards,.....		149,381	
Hay,.....tons	691,358	5,530,864	
Other products,.....		1,099,083	8,769,172
Total of Agriculture,.....			\$15,856,270
<b>II. Manufactures.</b>			
Metals and machinery,.....	\$194,099		
Lime, &c.,.....	621,583		
Woollen,.....	412,366		
Cotton, &c.,.....	1,023,086		
Leather,.....	443,846		
Furniture,.....	204,875		
Carriages,.....	174,310		
Ships,.....	1,184,902		
Houses,.....	733,067		
Other manufactures,.....	1,503,538		
		\$7,102,983	
Deduct for materials one-third,.....		2,334,328	
		\$4,768,655	
Manufactures by mills, one-quarter,.....		790,398	
Printing, &c., estimated,.....		56,250	\$5,615,303
III. Commerce, 25 per cent on capital,.....			1,505,380
IV. The Forest,.....			1,877,663
V. Fisheries,.....			1,280,713
VI. Mines,.....			327,376
Total,.....			\$26,462,705

## ANNUAL PRODUCTS OF INDUSTRY IN NEW HAMPSHIRE.

<b>I. Agriculture.</b>			
Horses and mules,.....No.	43,892	\$2,194,600	
Neat cattle,.....	275,562	4,133,430	
Sheep,.....	649,264	973,896	
Hogs,.....	121,671	365,013	
25 per cent of.....		\$7,666,939	
is.....		\$1,916,735	
Poultry,.....		107,092	\$2,023,827

Wheat,.....bush.	422,124	\$527,655	
Oats,.....	454,699	160,134	
Maize,.....	1,162,572	796,926	
Other grain,.....	379,880	284,910	
Potatoes,.....	6,206,606	1,241,321	
			\$3,010,946
Sugar,.....lbs.	2,162,368	129,742	
Products of dairy,.....		1,638,543	
"    orchards,.....		239,979	
Wool,.....lbs.	1,260,517	441,181	
Hay,.....tons	406,107	3,248,856	
Other products,.....		644,678	
			6,342,979
			\$11,377,752
<b>II. Manufactures.</b>			
Metals, &c.,.....	\$379,898		
Woollen,.....	795,784		
Cotton, &c.,.....	4,290,078		
Hats,.....	190,526		
Leather,.....	712,151		
Paper,.....	152,700		
Carriages,.....	232,240		
Houses,.....	470,715		
Ships,.....	78,000		
Other manufactures,.....	1,235,860		
		\$8,437,952	
Deduct for materials one-third,.....		2,812,651	
			\$5,625,301
Manufactures by mills, one-quarter,.....		790,398	
Printing, &c.,.....		130,112	
			\$6,545,811
III. Commerce, 25 per cent on capital,.....			1,001,533
IV. The Forest,.....			449,861
V. Fisheries,.....			92,811
VI. Mines,.....			88,373
Total,.....			\$19,556,141

ANNUAL PRODUCTS OF INDUSTRY IN VERMONT.

<b>I. Agriculture.</b>			
Horses and mules,.....No.	62,402	\$3,120,100	
Neat cattle,.....	384,341	5,764,113	
Sheep,.....	1,681,819	2,522,728	
Hogs,.....	203,800	611,400	
25 per cent of,.....		\$12,018,331	
is.....		\$3,006,110	
Poultry,.....		131,578	
			\$3,137,688
Wheat,.....bush.	495,800	\$619,750	
Oats,.....	2,222,584	888,904	
Maize,.....	1,119,678	746,652	
Other grain,.....	514,190	371,940	
Potatoes,.....	8,869,751	1,773,950	
			4,401,196
Sugar,.....lbs.	4,647,934	278,866	
Wool,.....	3,669,035	1,284,232	
Products of dairy,.....		2,008,737	
"    orchards,.....		213,934	
Hay,.....tons	836,739	5,857,173	
Other products,.....		697,319	
			10,340,271
			\$17,879,155

<b>II. Manufactures.</b>			
Metals and machinery,.....	\$161,374		
Woollen,.....	1,331,953		
Cotton, &c.,.....	268,430		
Leather,.....	361,468		
Paper,.....	214,720		
Carriages,.....	102,097		
Houses,.....	344,896		
Ships,.....	72,000		
Other manufactures,.....	5,098,653		
		\$7,955,591	
Deduct for materials one-third,.....		2,651,897	
		\$5,303,694	
Manufactures by mills, one-quarter,.....		270,781	
Printing, &c.,.....		110,950	
			\$5,685,425
<b>III. Commerce, 25 per cent on capital,.....</b>			758,899
<b>IV. The Forest,.....</b>			430,224
<b>V. Mines,.....</b>			389,488
			<b>\$25,143,191</b>

## ANNUAL PRODUCTS OF INDUSTRY IN MASSACHUSETTS.

<b>I. Agriculture.</b>			
Horses and mules,.....No.	61,484	\$3,074,200	
Neat cattle,.....	282,574	5,086,332	
Sheep,.....	378,226	567,339	
Hogs,.....	146,221	572,884	
25 per cent of.....		\$9,300,755	
is.....		\$2,325,189	
Poultry,.....		178,157	\$2,503,346
Wheat,.....bush.	157,923	\$197,404	
Oats,.....	1,319,680	527,872	
Maize,.....	1,809,192	1,356,894	
Other grain,.....	788,333	591,238	
Potatoes,.....	5,385,652	1,346,413	
			4,019,821
Wool,.....lbs.	941,906	329,677	
Products of dairy,.....		2,273,299	
" orchards,.....		389,177	
Hay,.....tons	569,395	5,124,555	
Other products,.....		1,425,142	
			9,542,450
<b>II. Commerce, 25 per cent on capital,.....</b>			\$16,065,627
<b>III. Fisheries,.....</b>			7,004,691
<b>IV. Manufactures.</b>			6,483,996
Metals and machinery,.....	\$4,717,919		
Woollen,.....	7,082,808		
Cotton, &c.,.....	17,823,637		
Hats, &c.,.....	918,436		
Straw bonnets,.....	821,646		
Leather,.....	10,553,826		
Paper,.....	1,716,630		
Cordage,.....	852,200		
Carriages,.....	803,999		
Furniture,.....	1,090,008		
Houses,.....	2,767,134		
Ships,.....	1,349,994		

Other manufactures,.....	\$13,305,878		
		\$63,903,617	
Deduct for materials one-third,.....		21,301,206	
		<hr/>	
Manufactures by mills, one-quarter,.....		\$42,602,411	
Printing, &c.,.....		442,796	
		472,850	
		<hr/>	
V. Mines,.....			\$43,518,057
VI. The Forest,.....			2,020,572
			377,354
			<hr/>
Total,.....			\$75,470,297

## ANNUAL PRODUCTS OF INDUSTRY IN RHODE ISLAND.

## I. Agriculture.

Horses and mules,.....No.	8,024	\$401,200	
Neat cattle,.....	36,891	664,038	
Sheep,.....	90,146	180,292	
Hogs,.....	30,659	122,636	
		<hr/>	
25 per cent of.....		\$1,368,166	
is.....		\$342,041	
Poultry,.....		61,702	
		<hr/>	
			\$403,743
Wheat,.....bush.	3,098	\$3,875	
Oats,.....	171,517	60,030	
Maize,.....	450,498	281,561	
Other grain,.....	103,990	77,003	
Potatoes,.....	917,973	227,994	
		<hr/>	
			650,463
Wool,.....lbs.	183,830	\$65,340	
Products of dairy,.....		223,229	
Hay,.....tons	63,449	571,041	
Other products,.....		285,493	
		<hr/>	
			1,145,103
			<hr/>
			\$2,199,309

## II. Manufactures.

Metals and machinery,.....	\$1,006,870		
Woollen,.....	842,172		
Cotton, &c.,.....	7,564,851		
Hats and bonnets,.....	178,571		
Leather,.....	182,110		
Houses,.....	379,010		
Other manufactures,.....	2,689,385		
		<hr/>	
		\$12,842,969	
Deduct for materials one-third,.....		4,280,989	
		<hr/>	
		\$8,561,980	
Manufactures by mills, one-quarter,.....		20,921	
Printing, &c.,.....		57,725	
		<hr/>	
			\$8,640,626

## III. Commerce, 25 per cent on capital,.....

1,294,956

## IV. Fisheries,.....

659,312

## V. Mines,.....

162,410

## VI. The Forest,.....

44,610

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Total,.....

\$13,001,223

## ANNUAL PRODUCTS OF INDUSTRY IN CONNECTICUT.

## I. Agriculture.

Horses and mules,.....No.	36,650	\$1,732,500	
Neat cattle,.....	238,650	4,145,700	

Sheep, .....	No.	\$403,462	\$806,924	
Hogs, .....		131,961	527,844	
25 per cent of.....			\$7,211,968	
is.....			\$1,802,992	
Poultry,.....			176,629	\$1,979,621
Wheat,.....	bush.	87,009	\$108,761	
Oats, .....		453,262	164,969	
Rye, .....		737,424	555,568	
Maize, .....		1,500,441	900,264	
Other grain,.....		336,802	252,598	
Potatoes, .....		3,414,238	854,559	2,836,719
Wool,.....	lbs.	889,870	\$311,434	
Products of dairy,.....			1,376,534	
“ orchards,.....			296,232	
Hay,.....	tons	426,704	3,840,336	
Other products,.....			730,900	6,555,436
				\$11,371,776
<b>II. Manufactures.</b>				
Metals and machinery,.....		\$3,559,029		
Woollen, .....		2,494,313		
Cotton, &c.,.....		3,302,059		
Hats and bonnets,.....		886,310		
Leather, .....		2,017,931		
Paper, .....		541,300		
Carriages,.....		929,301		
Ships, .....		428,900		
Houses, .....		1,086,295		
Other manufactures,.....		3,416,983		
			\$18,662,425	
Deduct for materials one-third,.....			6,220,808	
			\$12,441,617	
Manufactures by mills, one-quarter,.....			135,877	
Printing, &c.,.....			201,469	\$12,778,963
III. Commerce, 25 per cent on capital,.....				1,963,281
IV. Fisheries,.....				907,723
V. Mines, &c.,.....				820,419
VI. The Forest,.....				181,575
Total,.....				\$28,023,737

NOTE.—We are compelled to omit in this place the value of the products of the other states of the Union. They will be given in a subsequent number of this Magazine.—  
EDITOR.

#### ART. III.—OUR RAILWAYS.

If it be admitted that the commercial interests of the country are materially benefited by the railways now in operation, an examination into the means by which an extension of these advantages may be secured, cannot be without interest to the readers of the Merchants' Magazine. Especially is this investigation important, when we bear in mind that all the successful railways in the United States have been executed by private enterprise, the capital having been, in a great degree, furnished by the

mercantile community. It must also be obvious, to every intelligent observer, that all future undertakings of this kind must be carried through by individual energy and private capital exclusively.

Quite as important, however, as examining new projects—which may promise success, and which are called for by the increasing wants and more advanced state of the country—is it, to discuss the reasons why the merchants and manufacturers of New England and New York, and more particularly the farmers of western New York, derive so small a portion of the benefits which the railways now in operation are capable of conferring, to the advantage of all parties.

To this, but one answer can be given—the law of New York, which denies “in toto” the right of the citizen of this or of any other state to transport freight between Albany and Buffalo by railway. In other parts of the state, as on Long Island, in Rockland, Orange, Columbia, Tompkins, and other counties traversed by railways, the people are as free to use any mode of transportation they please, as are the citizens of London, Boston, or Philadelphia; but, during the five months the Erie canal is closed, merchandise or agricultural produce must be carried in wagons or sleighs, actually in sight of the railway, as during the past winter, or kept till May or June, and then sent down simultaneously with the produce of the western states—thus at once glutting a market which has been bare all winter, and completely neutralizing the advantages which the New York farmer ought to derive from his proximity to the seaboard, and actually using the large sums he has contributed to—as he is informed—“improvements,” as an excuse for depriving him of the vast benefits brought to his door by railways, of which he is not allowed to avail himself.

It is quite unnecessary to point out, that what cripples the farmer, cannot eventually be otherwise than injurious to the merchant. The sudden falling off in the receipts of the Western railroad, on the closing of the Erie canal, from \$14,000 to \$7,000 per week, gives some idea of the injury inflicted on the New York farmer, on the manufacturing population on the line of the railway, and, lastly, on that great work itself, by the withering monopoly of the Erie canal. Could western New York be supplied with merchandise by way of Philadelphia, or by any other route, during the five months’ sleep of the canals, this policy, though equally objectionable in principle, would be less injurious in effect; but, to exclude the farmer from market when alone he can leave his farm—to force him to lay in five months’ stores in the autumn, and to virtually prohibit him from sending to market many minor products from day to day, is literally “a wind that blows nobody good,” unless, indeed, the increase of officeholders be included in that category.

That the friends of the Erie canal know, or at least believe, that the railways alongside would, by giving superior facilities to the public, diminish the revenue of the Erie canal, is proved by the pertinacity with which they refuse to entertain the idea of permitting the railways to compete with the Erie canal, on any terms, even during winter. To perpetuate this “peculiar institution” of the north, the canal is to be enlarged—direct taxation, on the farmers of New York, to prevent a slight increase of the present moderate tolls on the produce of the western states, completing this patriotic policy. It is only by bringing prominently before the public the true state of the case, that the people of New York and New England can expect to be relieved from their present disability

of using railways for the transportation of freight to and from the West.

It was remarked, in the commencement of this paper, that private capital must hereafter be depended on exclusively. This assertion is based on the present condition of state works. Pennsylvania is endeavoring to sell out her "main line" from Philadelphia to Pittsburg, her only valuable public work—Illinois is trying to dispose of her canal; and both states will probably succeed. The canals of Ohio have been, and must continue to be, supported by taxation. In Indiana and Michigan, the interest "goes over;" and the people of New York are paying \$600,000 per annum to prevent a slight increase of tolls on the produce of those directly benefited by the Erie canal—the said tax being paid, in a great measure, by those who have no interest in that work, and by not a few whose property is injured by it; as the inhabitants of the river counties, Long Island, &c. In all these states, the people begin to comprehend the ruinous effects of entrusting the expenditure of millions on public works to a set of politicians; and it is hard to believe that another canal or railway will ever be undertaken by any state of this Union. It is at least doubtful whether any further appropriations can be carried to finish works already commenced.

But if public works are to be constructed exclusively by means of private capital, it is necessary to show that they will yield a fair return for the amount invested. Unless this can be made as clear as the nature of the case admits of, public works should not be undertaken; for they are valuable solely from their usefulness, which again is measured by their income. Of all the railways and canals in use in the Union, four only of the former—two in Pennsylvania, and two in Michigan—are state works; and the canals owned by private companies are not much more numerous. Of all the state works in the Union, the Erie canal alone cannot be pronounced a failure; yet it would be impossible to dispose of it for its cost up to this time, (about \$20,000,000,) not on account of the magnitude of the sum, but because, if thrown on its own resources, in fair and honorable rivalry, its income would not warrant that expenditure. Thus, the income for 1842 was \$1,568,946 56, and the nett revenue about \$1,200,000, with, and to a considerable extent, by means of the state monopoly, which, of course, it could not retain in the hands of a company. But, at its original cost of seven or eight millions, it would be readily taken.

Well-projected railways claim the favorable attention of the merchant, because they offer safe and profitable investments, besides aiding commerce, generally, by their unrivalled facilities. They are peculiarly adapted to this country, where the population and business are so scattered, and where capital is not abundant. Unlike canals, the cost of a railway may be adapted to the trade. In most parts of the country, a railway can be put into operation for about \$20,000 per mile, including engines, cars, buildings, &c., for a single track—less than half the average cost of the Chenango, Black River, and Genesee Valley canals, without boats, buildings, horses, &c. Again, a railway carries passengers, as well as freight, and both throughout the year; so that, with less than half the cost of the canal, its receipts are several times greater. It is on this account that canals must be constructed as cheaply as possible, to have any chance of success here. Even in a mineral region—the most favorable of all—their being useless half the year is an insuperable objection; and this

again becomes intolerable when advancing civilization renders a communication, open throughout the year, indispensable to the community. It appears, therefore, that three vital obstacles to the success of canals exist: their enormous cost, (compared with railways) their small income, their being closed nearly half the year in this wintry region. The two last objections are insuperable, and will as effectually deter individuals from embarking their own means in canals as would the first. With politicians, spending the money of the public, the case is reversed. They uniformly prefer those works which require the largest expenditure and the longest time to execute, these two conditions furnishing the best "opportunities." The \$20,000,000 spent in this state, on works which can never be required, affords only too true an illustration; but the course of the Canadian government, for the last two years, distances the wildest visions of the wildest western states, even during the phrenzy of '36.

The railways diverging from Boston in all directions, which have been projected, executed and managed by companies, form the only successful system of public works on this continent, and would command a large advance on their total cost. The Western railway has been, in a great degree, constructed with the funds of the state, and the direction being in part appointed by the stockholders and in part by the state, cannot well be efficient or harmonious. Besides this, it can never become a successful work until the railways of New York can be used for the transportation of freight. Had this work been left to private enterprise, its completion would have been delayed some years; probably until the repeal of the state monopoly, when its success may be considered certain. In place of a decrease, the winter will then show an advance on the receipts of the summer. It is of no use to speculate on which course would have been most advantageous. It is not impossible that the earlier use of the railway may compensate for its great cost and deficiencies during the first years. The Boston railways deserve peculiar attention from the readers of the *Merchants' Magazine*, because they have been constructed by the inhabitants of a commercial city to aid and extend its trade, foreign as well as domestic. Their success is as complete as is the failure of most of the works in which, unfortunately for themselves as well as for the cause of railways, so many of the merchants of New York have, at different times, taken stock. The results, in both cases, teach the same lesson: that the objects to be attained by the construction of any work, and the cost at which those objects can be secured, should be as carefully weighed and maturely considered as any undertaking of equal magnitude, in ordinary business, would be by merchants of the first class for capital and character. The Eastern, Lowell, Worcester, Providence, New Bedford railways and their branches, have succeeded because the expenditure was adapted to the probable income. The Stonington, Long Island, Harlem, Mohawk and Hudson railways are unsuccessful works, because the expenditure was not adapted to the probable income. The Boston railways were viewed as permanent investments, conducing alike to the advantage of the capitalist and of the community. The other railways, enumerated above, were regarded as mere speculations by stockjobbing, as were State works by political gamblers; both equally indifferent to the judgment with which the works were projected, and to the skill with which they were conducted. A more efficient course to injure the cause of railways and to retard the progress of the country, as far as it is affected by these works, could not have been devised.

When the public mind is turned in one direction, it is hard to divert it, be the reasons ever so cogent; and public works must remain in their present lethargic state, until they are regarded by men of property and intelligence as safe and permanent investments. This, again, can never be the case until such men give the subject their serious attention; the more cautious their examinations of cost and income, the better for the cause as well as for their own interests. The worthlessness of bank stock as an investment, its very trifling ultimate security, the downward tendency of "lots" since the fortunate discovery, during the last few years, that much land remained yet unoccupied in this country, together with the general failure of all undertakings not based on honesty and industry, must gradually work a radical change in the manner in which railways will, in future, be undertaken. Before many years elapse, they must be regarded throughout the Union as favorably as they have long been in Massachusetts and in England.

It is not the object of these remarks to advocate any particular railway or system of railways, but it is rather an attempt to draw the attention of merchants to the subject of internal communication generally; more especially by railways, as well as to the vast advantages they would derive from being permitted to regulate the mode and time of transporting their own commodities to and from the west, according to their own ideas of their own interests—in other words, if the state government would only "let them alone."

W. R. C.

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#### ART. IV. INLAND NAVIGATION OF THE STATE OF NEW-YORK,

WITH A SHORT ACCOUNT OF ITS ORIGIN, AND OF THE TRADE AND TONNAGE OF THE ERIE CANAL.

THE first idea of perfecting, by canals and locks, a continuous water communication between the Hudson river and Lake Erie, cannot be traced to any source in particular. It originated with the prolific mother of invention—Necessity.

The first surveyor who explored the forest between the tributaries of the Hudson and the lakes, may have entertained the idea, and have had some crude notion of how the thing was to be done. The earliest navigation of the Mohawk and Oswego rivers led to an examination of the practicability of substituting water communication for land carriage, at the different portages on those rivers; and a belief in the practicability of the interior, or present route of the Erie canal was, probably, entertained as soon as it was known that there were no mountains to intercept its course.

As early as 1768, Sir Henry Moore, governor of the colony of New York, directed the attention of the general assembly to the "great inconvenience and delay, attending the transportation of goods at the carrying places on the Mohawk river, between Schenectady and Fort Stanwix," and remarked "that it was obvious to all conversant in matters of this kind, that the difficulty could easily be removed by sluices, upon the plan of those in the great canal of Languedoc, in France."

The Languedoc canal was begun in 1666 and finished in 1681, and was furnished with both locks and sluices.

In 1784 a committee of the assembly reported, "that the laudable proposals of Mr. Colles, for removing obstructions in the Mohawk river, so that boats of burthen may pass the same, merit encouragement." In 1791 an act was passed "concerning roads and inland navigation, and for other purposes."

In 1792, nine years after the close of the Revolutionary war, the Western and Northern Inland Dock Navigation companies were incorporated. The Northern company soon expired; but the Western company completed a water communication from Schenectady to the falls of the Oswego river, and boats of burthen were passed to within twelve miles of Oswego. At Oswego falls there was a portage of a mile, and the navigation was resumed by a smaller class of boats at the foot of the falls to Lake Ontario.

The works of the Western Inland Lock Navigation Company, principally consisted of a series of locks and a canal, at the falls of the Mohawk at Little Falls, a canal, with locks, at Fort Stanwix, from the Mohawk river to Wood creek, (a tributary of Oneida lake and the Oswego river,) and a series of locks and dams on Wood creek.

The company were in the receipt of tolls as early as 1796, and were extending their works for the improvement of the navigation down to 1812, at which time it had expended \$450,000. The state became a shareholder in 1795, and subsequently increased its interest to \$92,000.

A boat leaving Schenectady followed the course of the Mohawk river to Fort Stanwix, and passing by the canal at that place into Wood creek and Oneida lake, entered the Oswego river eleven miles south of the falls, and twenty-three miles from Oswego. There was but one portage in the whole distance (at Oswego falls) between Schenectady and Lake Ontario. To the honor of this, the pioneer of our inland navigation, it should be remembered that it opened a navigation of about one hundred and eighty miles, without ever receiving any pecuniary advantage from the outlay, and that most of the shareholders undertook the enterprise more from patriotic than pecuniary motives. However imperfect the navigation, as compared with that of the Erie canal, which superseded it, its influence upon the prosperity, the early and rapid settlement of western New York, is incalculable.

In 1798 the Niagara Canal Company was incorporated for "Opening the navigation between Lake Erie and Lake Ontario." The Niagara company completed no work of importance, and the navigation was first opened in 1828 by the Oswego and Erie canals.

In 1808 the legislature passed a law directing "An accurate survey of the rivers, streams and waters, in the usual route of communication between the Hudson river and Lake Erie." Not without a decided opposition, and an unsuccessful effort for postponement of a year.

James Geddes received the appointment of engineer, and to him the honor is due of first demonstrating the practicability of the Erie canal. Mr. Geddes entered with enthusiasm upon the discharge of his duties, and in spite of the insignificant appropriation of six hundred dollars to defray expenses, accomplished an exploration, during the year 1808, which left no doubt as to the practicability of a canal from the Hudson to Lake Erie.

During the year 1817, nine years after Mr. Geddes' survey, the canal was begun; contracts having been made for constructing fifty-eight miles. The law, authorizing the construction of the canal, directed the middle

section, extending from Utica to Seneca river, to be commenced first. The wisdom of the measure may be appreciated when we recollect that one level on this section is sixty-nine miles long, and that upon the whole section there are but nine locks.

It was necessary to the success of the project that the first steps taken should be such as would ensure its early completion, and the mind that suggested the opening of the middle section first displayed no ordinary sagacity.

Two years after, in 1819, seventy-five miles of the middle section were completed, at a cost so small as to remove any doubts of the ability of the state to complete the whole canal. The popularity of the canal was also fully established, and in subsequent elections the popular vote sustained the policy.

The completion of other sections of the canal rapidly followed, and, in 1820, the middle section, ninety-six miles, was finished; in 1822 two hundred and twenty miles of canal were completed; in 1823, two hundred and eighty miles, and with the close of the year 1825, the whole, or three hundred and sixty-three miles. The Champlain canal, begun at the same time, was completed with the year 1823.

To the lovers of coincidence, it may be interesting to know that the number nine was not without its mystic influence upon the destinies of our inland navigation; that nine years after the Revolution the Western Inland Lock Navigation Company was incorporated; that from 1808 to 1817, nine years, legislative wisdom labored with the idea of the Erie canal; and that from 1817 to 1825, both inclusive, a period of nine years, the labor of constructing the canal was accomplished.

The state has completed, up to the present year, an aggregate length of canals, navigable feeders and slackwater navigation, of seven hundred and twenty-eight miles. The Erie canal is the main artery to which all other canals, owned by the state, are tributary, except the Champlain canal.

The following canals are owned by the state, and are navigable. The length of each includes side cuts and navigable feeders :—

Name of Canal.	Length in miles.	Cost.		Average cost, per mile.	Average cost per mile, per year, of repairs, from 1826 to 1843.	Date of com- pletion.
Erie,.....	371	\$7,143,789	86	\$19,225 49	\$636 00	1825
Champlain,*.....	79	1,257,604	26	15,520 95	1,012 00	1824
Oswego,.....	38	565,437	35	14,879 93	678 87	1828
Seneca & Cayuga,	23	236,804	74	10,295 85	664 65	1828
Chemung,†.....	39	331,693	57	8,504 96	490 05	1833
Crooked Lake,...	8	156,796	90	19,597 11	650 48	1834
Chenango,.....	97	2,270,605	22	22,377 37	184 39	1837
Oneida Lake,....	6	50,000	00	8,333 33	581 10	1840
Genesee Valley,.	52	1,401,791	90	26,957 53	252 65	1840
	713	\$13,414,523	43	\$18,814 29	\$572 24	

The annual expenditure for repairs has no small influence upon the profits of canal investments. The above table exhibits the curious fact,

\* Locks have been rebuilt on the feeder to this canal by contract, and are not included in the above.

† All the locks are being rebuilt by contract, at a cost of about the original sum expended in building the whole canal.

that the amount of business on a canal has no influence upon the cost of repairs. The Erie and Champlain canals were put in operation about the same time, and the business on the Erie canal has reached a point not far below its maximum capacity; while the business on the Champlain canal is, and always has been, quite limited. The annual repairs upon the former canal have cost, per mile, about 60 per cent less than those of the latter. That this is not accidental, is evident by the cost of repairs, per mile, on the lateral canals which have been longest in operation.

An examination of the statistics of the state and city of New York, will show that the completion of the Erie canal is an epoch from which they date a prosperity without precedent in their commercial history, or parallel in that of any other state or country. Although the increase of population, from 1790 to 1810, was rapid beyond all former example, it was not accompanied by a corresponding increase of wealth; and western New York, though rich in the produce of a fertile soil, was poor in every thing else. The last war with England, by causing a demand for produce on the frontier, enabled the western farmer to realize in money, and reduce or extinguish his debt at the land office; but, with the close of the war, the demand ceased, and his condition was, probably, not unlike that of the Illinois farmer at the present time.

The blast of war which blew in Europe for nearly a quarter of a century, was a profitable blast for the commercial interests of the city; but the profits of the carrying trade could not have added much to the wealth of the city, if the valuation of property in 1812 is at all accurate. The population of the city at that time was about ninety-six thousand, and the comptroller's valuation of real and personal estate was \$26,245,040.

From the opening of the Erie and Champlain canals to the present time, the interior trade has steadily increased, and it now employs an aggregate tonnage larger than that of all the foreign and domestic shipping entering and departing from the city of New York. The aggregate value of property ascending and descending the state canals alone, is about equal in value to the imports at the port of New York.

The following table of the population and prosperity of the state and city of New York, for the last fifty years, exhibits the rapid increase of wealth which followed the opening of inland navigation in this state:—

Years.	Population of the state.	Population of the city.	Real and personal estate of the state.	Real and personal estate of the city.
1790.....	340,120	33,131	.....	.....
1800.....	586,050	60,489	.....	.....
1810.....	959,049	96,273	.....	.....
1814.....	.....	95,519	\$281,838,057	\$77,398,243
1816.....	1,043,236	95,519	.....	82,074,200
1817.....	.....	.....	323,406,505	78,895,735
1818.....	.....	.....	314,913,695	80,154,091
1819.....	.....	.....	281,018,280	79,113,065
1820.....	1,372,812	123,706	256,021,494	69,530,753
1821.....	.....	.....	241,983,232	68,285,070
1822.....	.....	.....	245,626,878	71,289,144
1823.....	.....	.....	275,742,636	70,940,820
1824.....	.....	.....	274,481,560	83,075,676
1825.....	1,616,458	166,086	314,787,970	101,160,046
1830.....	1,919,404	203,007	364,715,830	125,288,518
1835.....	2,174,517	270,089	514,329,941	218,723,703
1840.....	2,429,476	312,932	641,359,818	252,135,515

From the commencement of the Erie canal, in 1817, to its completion in 1825, nine years, the increase of population in the city of New York was 74 per cent, but the valuation of real and personal estate was only a million more in 1824 than it was in 1816.

The increase of population in the first five years subsequent to the completion of the Erie canal was 22 per cent, and of real and personal estate 24 per cent. The increase of population in the fifteen years immediately preceding the completion of the canal was 72 per cent.

Increase of population in fifteen years after the completion of the canal, or from 1825 to 1840, 88 per cent, and of property 149 per cent. The above comparisons are no less remarkable as applied to the population and property of the whole state.

The opening of the Erie canal has advanced the commerce of the upper lakes from comparative insignificance to the foremost rank. Prior to 1818, there were no steamboats on the upper lakes, and the aggregate of American tonnage was 2,068 tons. The tonnage owned on the Canada side was inconsiderable.

From 1817 to 1825, there were but three steamboats launched upon the upper lakes. The aggregate tonnage in 1825, including steamboats, was about 2,500 tons. In 1840, the aggregate tonnage of steamboats alone exceeded 17,000 tons; and of other craft there was about 18,000 tons. There are about sixty steamboats now employed on the upper lakes, and the number of other vessels is two hundred and twenty-five.

The increase in inland navigation is shown by the following table of the amount of tolls collected at the eastern and western termini of the Erie canal:—

Years.	Tolls collected at Buffalo and Black Rock.	Tolls collected at Albany and West Troy.	Years.	Tolls collected at Buffalo and Black Rock.	Tolls collected at Albany and West Troy.
1829,.....	\$25,957 38	\$246,703 15	1836,.....	\$158,085 05	\$549,574 95
1830,.....	48,958 64	336,816 28	1837,.....	128,024 09	408,481 43
1831,.....	66,409 19	438,901 92	1838,.....	202,410 66	539,586 33
1832,.....	58,232 09	396,965 60	1839,.....	254,961 52	510,129 93
1833,.....	73,812 79	495,760 29	1840,.....	375,581 74	445,324 36
1834,.....	91,203 44	377,781 44	1841,.....	432,622 58	564,363 72
1835,.....	106,213 35	511,073 62	1842,.....	410,215 65	419,801 97

It will be seen that the tolls collected at the western terminus of the Erie canal have steadily increased in amount, with two exceptions only; and that, at the eastern terminus of all the state canals, there are seven exceptions in the same time, or in fourteen years. As early as 1833, the tolls collected at the Hudson river had nearly reached half a million; and down to 1842 they had not reached, in any year, \$600,000. The tolls at the western terminus have increased \$336,403 in the same time; and, for 1842, nearly equal in amount those collected at the Hudson river.

Further evidence of the increase of the western trade is furnished by the following table of the number of tons, and estimated value of property shipped at Buffalo and Black Rock, and at Albany and West Troy, and passing on the Erie canal:—

Years.	Shipped at Buffalo and Black Rock.		Years.	Shipped at Albany and West Troy.	
	Tons.	Value.		Tons.	Value.
1837,.....	73,194	\$3,304,771	1837,.....	172,692	\$25,784,147
1838,.....	104,400	4,870,459	1838,.....	187,434	33,062,858
1839,.....	156,164	5,222,756	1839,.....	200,544	40,094,302
1840,.....	177,607	6,200,286	1840,.....	161,211	36,398,039
1841,.....	248,471	9,706,024	1841,.....	194,446	56,798,447
1842,.....	225,173	7,541,793	1842,.....	141,836	32,314,998

The same steady increase in tonnage, as in tolls, at the western terminus, and like fluctuation in tonnage, as in tolls, at the eastern terminus, is shown by the table. If any further evidence were wanting to show that the trade of the upper lakes is rapidly furnishing a tonnage that will not only pay the expense of repairs of the Erie canal, (as it does at present,) but will also pay the interest upon its cost, the following tables will furnish it :—

Property arriving at Buffalo from other states, and shipped on the canal.		Merchandise and furniture arriving at Buffalo by canal, and shipped to other states.	
Years.	Tons.	Years.	Tons.
1835,.....	22,124	1835,.....	23,140
1836,.....	36,273	1836,.....	35,809
1837,.....	42,229	1837,.....	27,567
1838,.....	68,187	1838,.....	35,587
1839,.....	90,723	1839,.....	31,887
1840,.....	125,539	1840,.....	20,463
1841,.....	179,537	1841,.....	26,598
1842,.....	179,437	1842,.....	22,897

The tonnage from other states, and shipped at the western terminus of the canal, exceeds the tonnage at the eastern terminus, which passed upon the Erie canal, by 37,601 tons.

Tonnage, and estimated value of property arriving at the Hudson river by all the state canals.			Aggregate tonnage on all of the state canals, ascending and descending, and its estimated value.		
Years.	Tons.	Value.	Years.	Tons.	Value.
1834,.....	553,596	\$13,405,022	1834,.....	668,433	.....
1835,.....	753,191	20,525,446	1835,.....	882,801	.....
1836,.....	696,347	26,932,470	1836,.....	1,310,807	\$67,634,343
1837,.....	611,781	21,822,354	1837,.....	1,171,296	55,809,288
1838,.....	640,481	23,038,510	1838,.....	1,333,011	65,746,559
1839,.....	602,128	20,163,199	1839,.....	1,435,713	73,399,764
1840,.....	669,012	23,213,573	1840,.....	1,416,046	66,303,892
1841,.....	774,334	27,225,322	1841,.....	1,521,661	92,202,929
1842,.....	666,626	22,751,013	1842,.....	1,236,931	60,016,608

The value of imports at the port of New York, in 1840, was \$60,440,750; and of exports, \$34,264,080. Aggregate value of exports and imports by foreign and American vessels, \$94,704,830; exceeding, by two and a half millions, the value of property moved on the state canals in 1842.

It will be seen that the aggregate tonnage arriving at the Hudson river by canal, and the aggregate ascending and descending tonnage, has been nearly stationary for the last seven years; and that the tonnage from the upper lakes, passing on the canal, is five times greater than it was seven years since—the decrease in the tonnage of the state being about equal to the increase of tonnage from other states.

It is from the western states bordering the lakes, that we are to receive any material addition to the tonnage of the canals; and unless it arrives from that quarter, the business of our canals will not yield a much larger income than it does at present.

The following table indicates the states from which we are to draw our most profitable trade :—

Merchandise and furniture which passed on the Erie canal to other states bordering the upper lakes.					
	1838.	1839.	1840.	1841.	1842.
Pennsylvania,.....tons	1,205	1,471	1,067	855	567
Ohio,....."	16,283	15,123	10,116	14,674	10,657
Indiana,....."	1,701	2,352	789	1,116	827
Michigan,....."	11,973	7,432	4,616	5,714	5,533
Illinois,....."	3,943	3,926	2,599	2,417	2,919
Wisconsin,....."	42	792	816	1,190	1,985
Upper Canada,....."	26	.....	79	40	78

The state of Ohio completed the Ohio canal in 1833. Since then, she has completed canals, which make the aggregate length of her artificial navigation 785 miles.

The navigation is now open from Lake Erie to the Wabash river, in the state of Indiana.

The Illinois canal, (next in importance to the interest of the state of New York, to the Ohio canal,) has been suspended, although more than half completed.

The trade with Wisconsin is rapidly increasing; and the canal which will, at some future day, connect the Wisconsin river with Green Bay, will convey the produce of that territory to the upper lakes.

The British government, by the enlargement of some, and the construction of other canals, which will pass vessels carrying a burthen of three hundred tons from the Atlantic to the upper lakes, are furnishing a practical solution to a problem of no small importance to the city of New York. After the completion of the Canadian canals, if it shall be found profitable for British vessels to trade directly with the states bordering the lakes, New England vessels will likewise make it profitable; and the greatest manufacturers of either continent may drive a keener trade, and more active competition, than has ever before been witnessed, without our being able to share in the profits, by doing the carrying trade.

We may anathematize the frozen passage of the St. Lawrence; but if it shall be found, after a series of years, that commercial adventure nets a clear gain, the dangers of the navigation will not be heeded, and the loss of human life disregarded. In five years after the completion of the Canadian canals, or by 1850, the question will be fully examined and settled. If it shall turn out that the trade of the lake states, (states that can sustain a denser population than any others,) can be more advantageously done by the St. Lawrence, if the expectations of the British government are realized, there will then be no necessity for enlarging the Erie canal, and we shall have to content ourselves with the residuum of a trade which we now have entire.

H. S. D.

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#### ART. V.—COMMERCE OF THE MISSISSIPPI.

THE valley of the Mississippi, embracing that broad and fertile tract of alluvial soil lying between the Alleghany and the Rocky mountains, and including the territorial areas of the most prominent states of the west, possesses, in the Mississippi river, a commercial outlet magnificent in its features, and in all respects proportioned to the grandeur of the extensive region that it waters. Taking its rise from the rice lakes of the remote north, and receiving important tributaries which interlock their channels far through the interior, it supplies a most important track of navigation to the increasing trade and commerce of Louisiana and Arkansas, Mississippi and Tennessee, as well as the more northern states of Illinois and Indiana, Kentucky and Ohio, and the territories of Iowa and Wisconsin—a section of the republic which may already be regarded as the agricultural storehouse of our country. Coursing a distance of three thousand miles, it traverses a cold, as well as a tropical climate; the land of enduring snows, and the ranging-ground of the remote savage and the

fur-trader; the land of the wheat and the rice-field, the cotton and the sugar plantation; the solitary wilderness, and the opulent mart; supplying the main bulk of the trade to an important emporium of the west—the city of New Orleans. It is our design to devote the present paper to a brief sketch of the commerce of this most striking artery of our inland navigation.

In the first place, we would allude to a fact which has long been a formidable obstacle to the safe navigation of the Mississippi, as well as the cause of much individual hazard, and the sacrifice of numerous lives and a considerable amount of property. It is perhaps well known that the bed and banks of the Mississippi and Missouri are, for the most part, composed of alluvial deposits of sand, the latter of which are covered with large trees. When, as is often the case, the current of the stream rises, the banks not unfrequently fall, and these trees are carried off by the stream. The sand and earthy substance adheres to the root, causing that part to sink, and to leave the tree anchored in the bed of the river. Deposits of sand are thus formed about the roots, and the obstruction thus produced frequently forces the channel in another direction. By the action of the water or the ice, the branches are worn off, leaving a stem which sometimes projects above water, sometimes is submerged a few feet, and sometimes is so deeply buried below the surface as to be entirely concealed from sight. These obstructions, which present themselves with greater or less frequency throughout the greater portion of the bed of the Mississippi, vary in danger according to the position in which they chance to be placed. They are termed "*snags*;" and, coming into collision with the steamboats at midnight, or during a fog, are the source of no small discomfort to passengers—not unfrequently forcing a hole through the boat, sinking the hull, injuring the cargo, and even destroying lives.

These obstacles most commonly occur in the bends of the rivers, or in those parts where the currents are obstructed by islands or sand bars. Indeed, they present themselves occasionally in such numbers, that the boats are fenced in by these fallen trees, insomuch that a boat-master upon the Missouri was recently obliged to cut his way through them; and they tend to impede the navigation of that river to such an extent as to call for the attention of Congress. With that view, the chamber of commerce of the city of St. Louis have adopted vigorous proceedings in relation to the improvement of the navigation of the Mississippi river and its principal tributaries, and also the St. Louis harbor. A body of statistical facts connected with the commerce of that river, has been compiled, and submitted to the chamber by Mr. A. B. Chambers, demonstrating the amount of the actual commerce now carried on upon that river, and the motives which would call for the aid of the general government to remove the obstructions upon what may now be deemed one of the most important commercial highways of the nation. He who has had occasion to traverse the Mississippi, in one of the numerous steamboats which ply upon that river, may perchance have been cast in contact with one of those numerous snags which beset the stream, causing a degree of confusion, if not a damage, which it is highly desirable might be prevented. The amount of value afloat upon it, at all times during the season of navigation, and the value of the property whose fate would be probably involved in the improvement, naturally calls for some effective aid on the part of the general government. Independently of the carrying trade from the remote inte-

rior, the cotton and sugar plantations, which send their cargoes abroad from the states of Louisiana and Mississippi, Tennessee and Arkansas—the tobacco which is yearly shipped from the states of Kentucky and Tennessee, Mississippi and Illinois—together with the manufactured articles imported and exported from those states, exceeding in value that of its agricultural products, and the importance, as places of shipment, of the numerous ports upon the river—all tend to present additional claims for the aid of Congress.

The removal of those obstructions which have so long impeded the Mississippi navigation, would seem to be a no very difficult object. The most convenient instrument for that purpose is termed a *snag-boat*, which, with its machinery, will usually remove about twenty per day; the cost of working the boat being fifty or seventy dollars, and requiring fifty men; and the expense of construction being from twenty-five to twenty-six thousand dollars. The numerous wrecks of snagged steamboats, which strew that noble river—the fact that freights and persons from nearly half of the Union are afloat continually upon its bosom—that nearly six millions of people, residing in the bordering territory, would be benefited in greater or less degree by the improvement; and that the imports and exports of nine states and two territories, which skirt its banks, must pass along its waters, tend materially to strengthen the claims which have been urged before Congress for the improvement of its navigation. Hundreds of thousands of persons are sailing upon its surface during the season of navigation—property to the amount of millions of dollars are risked upon its waters. The merchants and manufacturers of the east are deeply interested in the subject, because the advance of freights is not less than 10 per cent, in consequence of the difficulties of navigation; and the losses of insurance companies, yearly, amount to no inconsiderable sum. Moreover, not one-tenth part of the land which skirts it has been subdued to cultivation; and the bright prospects of wealth and strength that are continually unfolding, from the developing resources of the soil, are ever adding to the value and importance of the desired improvement as a merely mercantile enterprise, important from the fact that, of the total number of steamboat losses throughout the whole country, the greater proportion occur upon the Mississippi river.

Passing by New Orleans, as well as the smaller intermediate ports, which now constitute valuable depots of trade, and points of shipment for the produce of the interior, we reach the city of St. Louis. That, from its geographical position, is doubtless destined to become one of the most opulent cities in the Mississippi valley; and to this point we shall now direct our special attention. This point, down to the year 1836, was but little more than a trading village; and its rapid advance may be pretty accurately judged from the fact that it now contains a population of about thirty thousand; and, although the first steamboat reached that port during the year 1817, it is not uncommon to notice the arrival and departure of from twenty to thirty boats during a single day. A considerable portion of the trade of the states of Illinois and Missouri, and the territories of Iowa and Wisconsin, center at this point. A vast amount of bricks are manufactured in the city. Lumber is produced in extensive quantities by the operation of nine steam sawmills. There are three mills for planing boards, two white-lead factories, three oilmills, and six merchant flour-mills, that grind annually eighty thousand barrels of flour, besides other

minor manufactures. The measure of its trade may also be judged somewhat from the fact that the whole amount of marine insurances in the city, including boat-hulls and cargoes, and embracing only property at risk upon the rivers, is set down at \$58,021,986; and adding to this the sum of 33½ per cent for property not insured, or insured at other places, we have a total of \$77,362,648.

The leading articles of export from St. Louis and the adjacent country, of which it is the commercial emporium, are lead, tobacco, furs and peltries, hemp, flour, wheat, and other agricultural products, as well as a large amount of horses, mules, hogs, and live cattle of various sorts, which are shipped to the south in flat or keelboats.

We turn our attention first to the article of lead, the greater part of which is received at St. Louis for export from the Galena mines, and that is either consumed in the city, sent to the Ohio, or shipped to New Orleans. The lead mines of Washington, and other southern counties, are, however, below St. Louis; yet the great bulk of this article is most commonly shipped from that port, through the agency of mercantile houses and by boats, to New Orleans. Subjoined is the statistical return of the receipts of lead at St. Louis, from the Galena mines, for three years, ending in 1841:—

1839,.....	pigs	375,000
1840,.....		390,000
1841,.....		425,000

The receipts of lead at New Orleans, for the same period, are as follows:—

1839,.....	pigs	300,000
1840,.....		352,000
1841,.....		423,000

Each pig averages 60 lbs., and accordingly the total amount may be estimated at 29,325,000 lbs., which, at three and a half cents per pound, would make the value of the trade \$1,026,375. It is said that the lead mines in the southern part of Missouri yield only about one-fifth part of the product of the Galena mines; and, according to that estimate, the whole lead trade would scarcely fall short of one million and three hundred thousand dollars—more than a million dollars' worth of which is transported within a few hundred miles of the whole navigable length of the Mississippi.

Another principal item of St. Louis export consists of tobacco. Of the tobacco crop of Missouri, it is stated, by a house engaged in the trade, that the shipments from that port, during the year 1841, did not much vary from nine thousand hogsheads, of which eight thousand five hundred passed through St. Louis, and of the subjoined quality and value; premising, however, that the present crop will range from twelve to fifteen thousand hogsheads.

2,000 hlds. strips,.....	worth in Europe	\$175,=\$350,000
2,500 firsts,.....	" N. Orleans	120, 300,000
2,500 seconds,.....	" "	70, 175,000
1,500 X's,.....	" "	50, 75,000
500 king's and bull's-eye,.....	" "	25, 12,500
Total,.....		\$912,500

Another peculiarly interesting feature of the commerce of St. Louis, is the circumstance that the trade of the American Fur Company, and that of other independent traders, including the fur trade of nearly all the northern and northwestern Indians within the jurisdiction of the United States, concentrates at that point. The value, to that city, of the trade in cloths, blankets, and other fabrics used in the traffic, exclusive of annuities, the pay of hands, and the outfits for expeditions, boats, &c., has been estimated, by individuals familiar with the trade, as exceeding two hundred and twenty-five thousand dollars. It has been computed that the exportation of furs, buffalo-robbs, and peltries, the proceeds of that trade, which go to the Atlantic cities, independently of the home consumption, and the amount sent to the Ohio and other parts of the west, during the year 1841, was between three hundred and fifty and four hundred thousand dollars; and that the entire fur trade for that year could not fall short of half a million of dollars. This trade includes the furs and skins that were collected by the various Indian tribes from the Mississippi to the Pacific, and from the Columbia to the California. The American Fur Company, it is well known, was originally incorporated with a capital of a million of dollars; and into this, as well as the Messrs. Brent's company upon the Arkansas, have been merged several smaller companies. They employ a number of steam and other boats, and several thousands of men. These boats, at least once a year, ascend the Missouri to the mouth of the Yellowstone, freighted exclusively with supplies for trade in furs with the several Indian tribes between the state line and that river, and also with the tribes extending thence to the Rocky mountains and the Pacific. The furs and peltries thus collected through that extensive tract of territory, as well as those purchased by the Mexicans, traverse a considerable portion of the Mississippi and the interior rivers; but the trade has, as is well known, become diverted to other channels, and has suffered substantial drawbacks in consequence of a want of certainty in the plans upon which it has been prosecuted.

Another important staple of the commerce of St. Louis is that of hemp, which is now, in fact, becoming one of the most valuable products of this section of the country. Not only are there now in existence two large manufactories of bagging and bale rope, but several ropewalks, which produce this article with considerable profit. One thousand four hundred and sixty tons of hemp were exported last year, of which sixteen hundred tons, grown in the state, were shipped to Kentucky, and three hundred and eighty to New Orleans. It is estimated that the crop of 1841 was double that of the preceding year, and that, including the state of Illinois, the farmers of which are beginning to direct their attention to the manufacture of hemp, the total crop during the year 1842 was about ten thousand tons, which, in a raw state, is doubtless worth \$200,000, but, when manufactured, as most of it is, and shipped to the south, would equal double that sum.

Another of the most valuable exports from St. Louis is pork, bacon and lard. The production of pork constitutes, in part, a prominent article of attention of the farmer for the market. Alton, Peoria, and most of the villages upon the upper part of the Mississippi and the Illinois river, export many thousand tons of pork in various states of preparation, as bulk and barrelled pork, bacon and lard. The value of the trade of Illinois, in that article, is estimated at a million and a half of dollars,

the Missouri and the Mississippi affording about an equal quantity, the larger portion of that produced on the upper Mississippi being consumed in the lead mines, by the Indians, and also at the various military posts in this quarter. A part of that which is provided upon the Missouri is consumed by the Indians, the fur companies, and by the army of the United States, stationed upon the frontier. Flour and wheat also form a considerable portion of the export trade of St. Louis and in 1841 one hundred and seventy-four thousand barrels of flour and two hundred and thirty-seven thousand bushels of wheat were shipped from that port, besides a large amount of horses, mules, heads of cattle and hogs, which are sent southward by the flat or keelboats, which may be seen continually plying upon the river. Besides the articles which we have enumerated, the exhaustless fertility of the soil, stretching away in broad expanse upon the banks of the Mississippi, and the easy navigation afforded by that river, will, doubtless, give to the city of St. Louis a control of the southwestern market, and enable her to exchange the vast amount of beef, pork, corn, oats, potatoes, wheat, and the other agricultural products produced in the adjacent region, for eastern merchandize, and while the capacity of the surrounding region is amply sufficient to supply the United States with meat and bread stuffs, its mineral resources, and the coal to manufacture the metals, so largely yielded by the earth, will enable it to furnish to the entire country enough of iron and lead for its entire consumption.

Nor are the imports of this inland city of less importance than its exports. A large amount of goods, of various sorts, required by the population along its shores, was, in 1841, imported from the east, the south, and the Ohio, and estimated at the value of twenty millions of dollars; all traversing the waters of the Mississippi. Some of those articles imported into St. Louis, such as hardware, queens and china ware, German and French goods, linens, wines and liquors, to the amount of several thousands of dollars, were received directly from Europe. Besides, an extensive trade is carried on between that city and Santa Fe, and the states of New Mexico, annually amounting in value to the sum of four hundred thousand dollars. These goods are often purchased here and transported by boats to Independence, upon the Missouri, and thence are carried in wagons across the country. This trade employs from one hundred to one hundred and fifty wagons. No inconsiderable an item to the trade of the place is furnished by the supplies for the United States army, such as arms, clothing, and rations, which amount to nearly a million of dollars, and which it is necessary to transport over the rivers to their destined points. It may be mentioned, as indicating the extent of the commerce of the Mississippi by steam, that, upon this river and its tributaries, four hundred and thirty-seven boats regularly plied during the year 1841, of which one hundred and fifty were employed in the St. Louis trade, and eighty-three steamboats were, in part, owned by citizens of that place; some of them being run from the Ohio to Peoria, upon the Illinois, and to Galena upon the Mississippi, while others are now employed in a direct trade from New Orleans to various points upon the Missouri, making St. Louis a stopping point. It may serve to give some idea of the character of the commerce of the river, to state that the exports from St. Louis to New Orleans by steamboats, keel, or flatboats, either carried direct or sold along the coast, consist of flax-seed, tobacco,

wheat, whiskey, shot, hides, hemp, castor oil, corn, meal, buffalo robes, beeswax, rope, butter, bagging, beans, furs and peltries, green fruit, dried, tallow, bacon, beef, dried corn, flour, lard, lead, oats, potatoes, pork, onions, and live cattle.

But notwithstanding the importance of St. Louis as an inland city, that, from its position, must be the centre of the trade of a wide extent of surrounding territory, we advance by the cities of Vicksburg, Natchez and other minor places, serving as valuable points of shipment for the produce of the interior, and soon reach the commercial emporium at its mouth, the city of New Orleans. Here is the grand entrepot of foreign commerce, and the natural point of export. The mighty stream of products, which are continually pouring down through the Mississippi, finds in New Orleans its grand reservoir, and here also is the depot, whence a considerable portion of the freights imported from abroad are shipped into the interior. Here, also, is the rallying point of commercial enterprise and population, the seat of mingled yet refined manners, opulence and want, splendor and poverty; exhibiting all the characteristics of an Atlantic city in its thronged marts and its tumultuous and crowded streets. Standing upon its levee, one may behold, during the season of navigation, fleets of vessels, either setting sail for foreign ports, or taking in their canvas and running into the docks, laden with freights from Great Britain and France and the most prominent ports of Europe. It is here that the cargoes of cotton and tobacco, sugar and molasses, and other agricultural products, either transported from the interior to the frontier or brought down the river in the puffing low pressure steamer, or the numerous strange water craft which ply upon that stream, are accumulated for export to our northern states or to foreign ports; and it is here that one may find the most thorough representation of the mingled population scattered along the Mississippi valley. We may judge somewhat of the amount of this commerce from the fact, that, besides the four hundred and thirty-seven steamboats which regularly ply upon the river, and that vast train of keel and flatboats that are sent down from the upper ports with produce or live stock from the interior, there were in the month of December, 1842, as we learn from the New Orleans price current of that date, in its port one hundred and twenty-eight ships, forty-six barques, forty-four brigs, and nineteen schooners, either unloading, taking in their cargoes, or awaiting a more auspicious season for future voyages. We conclude this condensed view of the commerce of the Mississippi with an expression of our thanks to the chamber of commerce of the city of St. Louis for their valuable document, to which we are much indebted in the preparation of the present paper; and we trust that this important commercial avenue of the west may receive such aid as its prominence as a national highway would seem to invoke.

## ART. VI.—FREE TRADE.

MR. WOODBURY'S VIEWS OF THE TARIFF.

THE views put forth by this gentleman, in his lecture before the New York Free Trade Association, do not, in all respects, coincide with the writer of the present paper. They are tolerant towards a mode of taxation which we deem injurious to trade, and inordinately burdensome to tax-payers. We therefore wish to state our objections to them in due season, since they are views entertained by other leading politicians, and likely to become the policy of the nation, if not strenuously opposed by the people. Whether these leaders regard the revenue from customs as the best, or only as the best at present attainable, is not for us to inquire in these pages; but, leaving constitutional questions out of view, and leaving the real or supposed opinions of the multitude of voters to the guesswork of nominating juntos, we propose to show that the true interests of the world, the country, and the people, require, as the ultimate and fixed policy, a total abandonment of this species of taxation; and that the tardiness of our government, in relation to this reform, is too great, too much indulged by the public, and not without unfavorable effects on the legislation of other nations.

Having replied in a very able manner to the usual arguments against free trade, Mr. Woodbury proceeds to consider how far the necessity of revenue warrants a tax on commerce. He says—"A tariff on imports, not much exceeding the tax levied on other kinds of property by the states or the federal government, does not prevent trade from being equally free with all other kinds of business. Nor is such taxation unjust; for, when equal, it treats all with like favor, and merely makes all pay, as all should, in a just ratio for the ordinary protection of life, liberty, and all kinds of property. The true practical motto, then, where taxation becomes necessary to maintain an economical administration of the government, is, not 'free trade, and no duties,' but 'free trade, and low duties;' the latter being no higher than what is required for revenue alone, and only in due proportion to the tax which is generally imposed on other property in the country under our mixed forms of government. But, while the ordinary rate of taxation on most other property is not, by the states, over five per cent on its value, and often not one, the existing tariff is seldom less than twenty per cent, and in some cases eighty or a hundred."

By this extract, and by the general tenor of this portion of his lecture, it may be seen that he considers *equality* a necessary condition in taxation. We are not prepared to admit this; but we will for the present grant it, and show that it conflicts with the view he attempts to sustain by it. But first, to make the matter clear, we must observe that there is a fallacy in comparing, in the way he does, the tax of one or five per cent, levied by the states, with that of twenty or a hundred, levied by the nation—the one being on capital, the other on revenue. One per cent on the value of a farm or mill, is equal to a fifth or seventh of its rent—equal, at least, to the average duties since 1816. Hence, though it may serve as an argument against the existing tariff, it will not serve as an argument for such low duties as we hope Mr. W. intends to advocate.

But, in levying this tax on domestic products, the states indirectly tax the commodities for which they are exchanged—if, then, duties be after-

wards imposed, the taxation becomes double. If a farmer pays a tax equal to a fifth of all that remains to him after paying the cost of cultivation, he obtains so much less of foreign goods in exchange for his produce—for the foreigner does not pay a higher price for produce in consequence of our taxation; and if, when he brings home the pay for his remaining four-fifths of his nett produce, the government takes a fifth of that, it gets in all thirty-six per cent on the foreign goods, or sixteen more than it receives on domestic. All tariff imposts are an increase of taxes equal before; and they must be lower than is contemplated, by any low-tariff men we know, if they do not conflict with the condition stated by Mr. W., that they shall "*not much exceed the taxes levied by the states,*" &c. Equality, strictly, forbids any duties—it demands "free trade, and no duties;" and the moderate *inequality* which Mr. Woodbury seems willing to tolerate, even this will by no means allow the duties necessary to the government. Our design, and the narrow space that can be spared in a journal, will not allow us further to pursue this branch; but we cannot refrain from remarking that, when a statesman builds up a system, it is not advisable for him deliberately to put into it what he believes to be a false principle. If he affirms equality to be right, let him insist on it, and not tolerate a moderate intermixture of a contrary principle. For ourself, we question the necessity of equality, in the sense here implied; but whatever weight it may have, is wholly in favor of free trade, in the strict sense of the term.

Since this argument in favor of duties is shown to rest on a singular oversight of the fact that, without duties, the equality already exists, and would be destroyed by duties, we may notice some arguments against them, not alluded to by Mr. W.; namely, the compound profits on duties, and the increase of price of domestic goods, with profits thereon, all which are paid by consumers, without the least benefit to the government. Merchants of good standing inform us that the profits of importers average 10 per cent on what it costs them to get their goods into their stores; those of jobbers, 15 to 18 per cent; those of retailers, at least 25 per cent, taking the whole country through. On a given article, the importer pays one dollar duty—he sells it to the jobber; the jobber to the retailer; he to the consumer, each charging his profit. Hence, the dollar becomes  $\$1 \times 1.10 \times 1.165 \times 1.25 = \$1.60$ . Thus, it appears that sixty cents on every dollar is paid by the consumer, in consequence of collecting taxes in a way which subjects them to profits. But this is a small fraction of what results from the effects produced by the tariff on domestic goods. Under the present tariff, by the estimate of the chairman of the committee on manufactures, the value of *protected* goods imported annually, is \$45,000,000; of those made at home, \$400,000,000. We suppose that the *protection* is only adequate—only enough to produce fair competition; for the manufacturers are too noble to ask more—the legislators too enlightened to grant more! The average duty is 36 per cent; hence the duty on imports, \$45,000,000, is equal to \$16,200,000. This is all the government receives. Let us now see what the consumers pay. The profits on the duties is \$9,720,000; the increase of price of domestic goods is \$144,000,000; the profits on this investment of price, reckoning only jobbers and retailers, is \$64,800,000—in all, \$213,520,000, paid as the incidental expense of collecting \$16,200,000; besides all the cost of the custom-house, revenue-service, legislation, negotiations, and sometimes

wars, arising from this system. But this is not all; nor is it possible to detect all. The valuation is made in this country, not according to the invoice price, but according to the price of domestic goods of the same quality—hence the duties may be increased far beyond the nominal rate.

Mr. Woodbury, however, is not friendly to an evil so enormous. High duties he condemns. But no tariff can be unattended by the evil of profits upon them; and the tariff of equal duties, which he advocates, cannot fail to raise prices on a large amount of goods. A rate of less than 10, perhaps 15 per cent, will not support the government; and this rate will afford efficient protection to cheap articles—hence, much of the evil will continue, if “*low duties*” be levied. Even if we adopt a tariff from which the principle of protection is rigidly excluded, which taxes only teas, and other articles that we cannot produce, still at least \$18,000,000 will be paid for profits on duties, which will in no respect benefit the government.

We could wish no easier task than to explode the tariff system, if the principle of equality were established—they are utterly incompatible—but we see no very strong grounds for the principle, and are not aware that it is generally deemed of consequence. Indeed, objections of the deepest root lie against it. Not only tariff taxes, but all other taxes that fall on consumers, through commodities that pass through the hands of dealers, are increased by profits—and this principle, as he expounds it, opposes a barrier to a selection of such kinds of property as may be taxed without giving rise to profits. It *assumes* that *property* of all kinds is equally subject to taxation; but it takes no notice of the fact that it bears unequally upon persons, and is not economical.

Besides the violation of sound principles of taxation, and the liberty to exchange with any who possess what we want, this method of taxing trenches on another kind of equality or right, namely, the right to equal privileges; or, rather, to equal exemption from privileges in others to use us for their profit. It has been customary to take a too limited view of the protective, or privilege system—to regard it only as a boon to manufacturers; but it is really a monopoly to capitalists in general. Put the duties low as you will, they still protect if they be indiscriminating; and, though the injury be less as the duties are lower, the principle is still indulged. Money in England lets at 2 to 3 per cent; and sometimes, of late, at 1 per cent—here, it brings 6 or 7. While the difference is so great, the American capitalist dreads a free commerce, that will bring English capital into competition with his own, just as the English landholder dreads the competition of American land, whose price is not a tenth of the annual rent of his own. Abolish restrictions, and the rates of rent and interest in the two countries will approach towards equality; but increase them, and the inequality increases. While the English manufacturer can get money at 2 or 3 per cent, he can manufacture cheaper than the American, who must pay 6 or 7; but if you allow duties, and so produce an arbitrary equality of prices, the scanty capital of this country becomes invested in costly machinery, on which the consumers must pay twice the profit they would pay on English machinery. Whoever in this country owns more than a certain amount of any kind of property, except land, if he is a shrewd and selfish fellow, will pray for high duties. If he cannot get them, he will lower his tone, and pray for moderate duties, *incidentally* protective. If these be denied, he will pray for a horizontal tariff, with duties adequate to a *judicious* administration; and if this be

denied, he will join the middle-ground conservatives, and shout "free trade," "low duties," "equality," &c., &c.; for every shackle on trade increases the demand for his capital, and every effective blow at the restrictions diminishes this demand, by giving to foreigners that work which requires large capital, and paying for it in the products of agriculture, which requires little capital, and would require less, if the lands were not sold, but rented. His policy is to create a demand for capital. To do this, he will divert it into mills; put it to sleep in lands; persuade men to buy land in Iowa, Oregon, or the moon—no matter where, so that this capital is dissipated—but he will never be in favor of free trade. In short, the tax of customs, in this country, is a device to keep up the profits of capital, and to keep down the rent of land. In England, it is worse—it is a device to keep up rents, and to keep down profits and the wages of labor, so that the landholder may obtain fifteen dollars per acre for rent, and with that money hire thirty men for a day, with the implements necessary for them to use. The higher this tax, the worse; but the least fraction of it is an offence to freedom and freemen—and if we, who are our own masters, do not explode it, and show to the world that it is not necessary for protection or for revenue, we shall not confirm the belief that, in a democracy, the men of great genius and great virtue will rule.

Another obvious objection to this tariff system, is the effect it has to keep up restrictions abroad. English papers are constantly quoting our tariff, as a pretext for countervailing duties; and they find enough who believe in reciprocal free trade, but suppose that one-sided free trade will be injurious to the nation that adopts it. We grant that the less the duty, the less is the effect in this way; but a total abolition would be palpable and prompt in removing the scruples of these men, and make them at once join the free trade parties in their respective countries; while the modifications proposed will not satisfy them. Above all, a generous movement on our part would have the unusual, because seldom tried, effect of an appeal to the nobler feelings of men. Indeed, we deem this the only way in which other nations ought to be addressed in the matter. We should do the right thing ourselves, and leave it to the exertions of the liberal-minded, who will in due time control public opinion, to remonstrate with their own oligarchies, and drive them into the right way. When all his neighbors are mean, a weak man becomes like them in practice, though he be unlike them in principle; but if an honorable man come into the neighborhood, the weak one dares to differ from the rest, being excited and emboldened by example, and ashamed to bear an unfavorable contrast. So, if a nation acts nobly, the people of other nations, from admiration and shame, will follow the example, and generally endeavor to indemnify themselves for not having had the honor of beginning the good conduct. As when a drunkard reforms, the temperance people rejoice, knowing that their orations are as nothing to his example, so if this nation sends the tariff to Coventry, a few years hence you may buy tariffs in Coventry cheaper than old clothes in Chatham-street; for cupidity—a weakness that men dare not confess before those who are above it—cannot resist the force of a bold example of generosity, a quality that all men admire, and would be thought to possess. The universality of the apology, "everybody does so," is a good reason for supposing that some notable exception, in any case of this nature, will not be barren. But, were it not likely that such results would soon follow, it is due to communities to

address the nobler portion of them with such arguments and inducements as honorable men can listen to; and not to tamper with the weakness of human nature, by appealing to the pockets, the fears, and the national prejudices of the meaner sort. All gentlemen in Europe or America will refuse to applaud or countenance the crafty manœuvring of treaty-makers and slow-moving reformers, who are in perpetual dread that they may not get their pennyworth of privileges and meliorations; and, wrong though it be, they will keep aloof from public affairs while such men and their measures are the only ones before the community, to claim its respect, and its zealous efforts in elections.

If, in the event of our abolishing duties, some nations should not reciprocate, and if, as the protectionists believe, this one-sided freedom of trade should prove of greater disadvantage to us than we ought to bear, there still would remain this remedy: other nations would gladly obtain a greater share of our trade, and, to do so, would readily reciprocate our freedom, if we proposed, as a condition, to shut our ports entirely against nations that still refused to adopt the principle of freedom. We do not mean that this mode of coercion should be resorted to, unless the disadvantage were considerable, at least some millions per year; for there is an obligation of morality and honor, to bear some sacrifice for the good of mankind, and to sway other nations by courteous means, not by appeals to their fear or avarice; but if the conduct, contrary to our belief of England, for example, should long continue to be of the sordid character, presumed by the reciprocal free traders, then the alternative, free trade or no trade, might be offered as an inducement to England to open her ports, and at the same time to France and Germany to open theirs. The latter nations would esteem it an advantage to their manufacturers to get all the custom which England had enjoyed from us; and, so far as France is concerned, we have reason to believe that there are no weighty obstacles to hinder the acceptance of such a proposition; nor do we know why Germany and Russia and other nations should not avail themselves of the opportunity. England, alone, has a strong body whose interests are opposed to it, but whose honor, nevertheless, may not unsuccessfully be applied to in favor of a system generally allowed to be unexceptionable, if reciprocal, and in favor of a nation that generously incurs the real or imaginary honor of disadvantage, by being the first to adopt it. The pride and the high sense of honor of the English oligarchs are well known to render them superior to the meaner motives of avarice which operate on the middle classes; but, if this pride and honor should fail, then the alternative we speak of would be a potent argument; it would array the capitalists and laborers of England against the landholders, and they would not long retain their political stations, as peers, if they did not give way; but both this noble appeal to the higher principles, and this last resort, in case higher principles are wanting, are prevented by the weak and partial reform proposed by Mr. Woodbury, the low duty system.

Since we deny this mode of taxation, as a means of the necessary revenue, we are under a sort of obligation to point out a less exceptionable one. This we shall attempt.

There is a tendency in some taxes to distribute themselves so that they will unavoidably fall on consumers, whatever legislation may do to prevent it; in some other taxes there is no such tendency; the latter are the fittest, since no profits accumulate upon them, provided there be no oppres-

siveness in singling out the particular kinds of property which yield such taxes, and compelling the owners to part with a portion of the natural revenue thereof. But we so far admit the doctrine of equality that we regard it as unjust to lay such taxes on property that is strictly private. What a man has made, all that results from labor and skill, all that is detached from the earth, is private property; but whatever is an original part of the earth, its soil, its waters, its atmosphere, its mines, fisheries, harbors and pleasant situations, these are the inalienable property of the race; only the revenue of them belongs to the generation at any time living; and no acts of past publics, or oligarchies, can have impaired the right of any generation to the whole of this revenue. If, in times of oppression and ignorance, men have given to the public some consideration or condition, that, forever after, the rents of certain parts of the public estate should fall to them and theirs, saving the part which the public may demand as taxes, this is no ground of right on which to claim a continuance of the alienation, though the feelings of kindness for persons, and of charity for errors, will prompt every honorable mind to indemnify these claimants on the public estate; but while we thus concede the privilege of undiminished revenue to landholders, we claim for the public the whole of whatever increase of rent may accrue—and a great increase will accrue—from a change of taxation, and an emancipation of commerce from its ancient shackles; in this there is no injustice, no unkindness; and as this is a very obvious source of revenue, and one wholly free from the objection of profits, we adduce it as a reply to those middle ground men who make the plea of treasury-want for the continuance of the over-burdensome tax of the customs.

Another source of revenue, which, if rightly managed, especially under a commercial system which increases the demand for agricultural produce, will soon become considerable, and ultimately immense, is the public domain. We do not admit the right to sell any part of it; but the rents of it, of course, belong to the public, and may justly be used for current public expenses. The present management is such as to hinder the settlement of new lands; it requires the payment of \$1 25 per acre from men whose capital is so scanty, and whose credit is so limited, that the interest of this sum is worth, to them, not generally less than 20 per cent; hence the price is as burdensome as a rent of 25 cents per acre, and the lands, therefore, will not be cultivated until the price of produce will pay this rent, above all the cost of cultivation. The true natural system is, to allow land to be used as soon as it will barely pay the cost of cultivation, and to demand rent as soon as a surplus remains, after paying the wages of the farmer, and the profits of his stock; this surplus is rent; the farmer cannot fail to obtain it from the consumers; and if the public allows the farmer to keep it, it merely enriches him, but does not in the least cheapen produce, the natural price of which depends solely on the cost of raising it on the poorest or most remote lands, which barely pay for cultivation. Now an abolition of duties would increase imports, and, therefore, exports, chiefly of produce, hence lands would come rapidly into use, but more rapidly if this virtual rent were not demanded; for, let it be observed, this is an *unnatural* rent, a rent on all land, even the poorest and most remote, and such a rent, or rather tax, enhances the price of produce; it is precisely equivalent to an indiscriminate measurement land tax. But if all lands that will now barely pay for cultivation be allowed to be settled, rent free,

the increasing trade will soon increase the demand for produce, roads and canals will be opened, and the farmers' income will soon exceed what is due to their capital and labor; and in this way a natural revenue will grow up, and in time it will be sufficient for the public expenses of the new territories, and for the national government. The low duty system, though it does not wholly prevent this revenue, cannot fail to keep it far below its natural limit; for every tariff impost in some degree checks importation, and the demand for produce to pay for imports.

For the foregoing reasons, we protest against this compromise of the principles of free trade, and hope that all free traders will insist on the full measure of freedom; to be carried into effect as speedily as can be, without too much pressure upon interests that have grown up under the old system. Let it be decreed, as soon as possible, that the duties shall be wholly abolished; but if justice and good will require that they be extinguished gradually, let it be so.

P. B. F.

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#### ART. VII.—MERCANTILE BIOGRAPHY.

##### SKETCH OF THE LIFE AND CHARACTER OF THE LATE JACOB RIDGWAY.

A CORRESPONDENT of the *Herald*, in Philadelphia, has furnished some interesting incidents of the life of the late Jacob Ridgway, of Philadelphia. The writer was personally acquainted with the subject of this notice, and gives a variety of facts derived from Mr. R. personally before his death, and other authentic sources.

It appears that Mr. Ridgway, styled the millionaire, was born near Tuckerton, in the state of New Jersey, seventy-five years ago, of wealthy parents. In Europe, his father would have been regarded as one possessing lordly domain, and altogether worthy a title and rank among their nobles. He wore a title here, among his republican fellow-citizens, of infinitely greater value than all the diadems of Europe—that of an honest, benevolent, and good man—which he never tarnished, but carried with him to his grave, leaving to his descendants each a legacy a prince might be proud of, and all true men know how to value. The object of this sketch left home at an early age, not content with the tranquil enjoyment and ease of competency in rural life, came to Philadelphia, and entered that of a busy, bold, and enterprising merchant. He commenced on a small scale; but by his industry, integrity, economy, and attention to business, he rose rapidly—*Dame Fortune* smiled—he, in common parlance, became a shipping merchant. He visited Europe, to superintend a branch of the house with which he was connected; and soon after, having the confidence of the merchants of our country, was appointed American consul at Antwerp, where he laid the foundation of his great fortune. He shortly after retired from mercantile pursuits, having applied himself so closely as to impair his health—then made the tour of Europe, and returned to his native country with his health but little recruited. He placed himself under the care of two of our most experienced physicians; visited by their directions the Virginia Springs, and other watering-places, to no purpose. He then settled himself in Philadelphia, entered extensively into the improvement of it and the city of Camden, on the opposite

side of the river Delaware, and, in proportion as he improved them, so did his fortune and health increase; and from being the owner, in early life, of a single farm, he acquired possessions and wealth, the extent of which has perhaps never but once been equalled in Pennsylvania, and in all human probability never will be by any one man again. It is in vain, at this time, to attempt to calculate with certainty his wealth; as those to whom it has worthily descended can form, as yet, no proper estimate. Mr. Ridgway was, throughout life, a plain, truth-loving man, who inspired confidence in all with whom he came in contact. His dress and deportment were plain, his manners free from *hauteur*; yet they were such as to command respect from all, and to avoid undue familiarity with any. He was judiciously benevolent; ever found ready to encourage the man of limited means, and send him on the road to fortune. This was particularly manifested in his directorship of the Bank of Pennsylvania, in which he was a large stockholder, always refusing discounts and accommodations to the rich and extensive operators or speculators, preferring the humbler mechanics, tradesmen, and merchants. His conduct in that particular may serve as an index to his business intercourse with the world. Indeed, for the last few years of his life, he had little other than business intercourse. His time was occupied in the employment and payment of a vast number of the humbler portion of our citizens, to whom, and the city of Philadelphia generally, his loss will long be felt; and many a family of respectability, whose fortune has fallen from under them within the last few years, and who were tenants of his, will live to mourn his loss, who knew and felt for them in a way not to be misunderstood. Mr. Ridgway left a son and two daughters; to whom, in equal proportions, after providing in a handsome manner for all closely connected with him in business, including his household servants, he bequeathed his vast fortune. In this last act of this prosperous and good man's life, he showed himself a true man. His children were entitled to the products of his enterprise—they have received it without stint, limit, or condition; and either of them may be considered as wealthy as any citizen of our state. The son of Mr. Ridgway is a true American nobleman—so plain, unassuming, and unpretending in his manners and deportment, that he might well be mistaken for a gentleman of humble fortune. One of his daughters is the wife of Dr. James Rush, a man of science, and high reputation in his profession. He is the son of the celebrated Dr. Rush, late of Philadelphia. Mrs. Rush is well known for her benevolence and extended charities—she is a lady of commanding intellect, and great sprightliness of character; the leader in fashionable life; yet never forgets the poor.

The other daughter of Mr. Ridgway is the widow of Mr. Roach, who was a country gentleman, and has lived for the last few years a country life. She is said to be betrothed to Dr. J. Rhea Barton, a successful and far-famed surgeon. We have thus given a brief history of the life of Mr. Ridgway. Of the leading traits of his character, and kindness to the virtuous poor, the writer speaks from personal observation, and a limited acquaintance for the last few years. But a few weeks before his death, he was in perfect health. He was injured, in walking along the street, by a pair of horses attached to a vehicle running away. He was taken home, and within a week the writer called at his office to inquire after his health, and was surprised to find him sitting in his usual seat, and in fine spirits. He was in a few days after confined to his bed. The

writer attended his funeral. The ex-president of the United States, John Quincy Adams; his secretary of state, Richard Rush; the ex-minister to Russia, the Honorable George M. Dallas; Horace Binney, Charles Chauncey, Josiah Randall, David Paul Brown, and Richard Willing, Esquires, and many other of our most distinguished citizens, were there. The coffin was plain—on the breast was a silver plate, with this inscription:—

JACOB RIDGWAY,  
Died April 30, 1843,  
In the 75th year of his age.

His remains were conveyed to Laurel-Hill cemetery, and deposited in the family vault.

*Requiescat in pace!*

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ART. VIII.—STORY ON BILLS OF EXCHANGE.\*

THE learned author of these commentaries has rarely produced a work more likely to be directly useful to persons out of the legal profession, than is the volume before us. It may go at once into the hands of the merchant, the banker, and the broker, for purposes of great practical benefit; while it is, at the same time, of the highest value for the philosophical and well-read commercial lawyer. It treats of the origin and nature, and different kinds and requisites of bills of exchange; the competency and capacity, the rights, duties, and obligations of parties to bills; the consideration and transfer of bills; the presentment of bills for acceptance, the non-acceptance thereof, and proceedings thereon; the presentment for payment and non-payment, and proceedings thereon; and the payment of bills, and other discharges of parties thereto. All these topics, with the laws and usages of the commercial world, are unfolded with great clearness, learning, and lucid arrangement; so that the reader, when he has been through these chapters, finds not only that his actual stock of knowledge is vastly increased, but that his power of comprehending the principles of legal rules and provisions is materially enlarged. But what is to render this work of great value, and indispensable use to commercial persons in this country, is the chapter on "Guaranty of Bills and Letters of Credit." The vast amount of our commerce with foreign countries, carried on by means of these artificial aids, renders a knowledge of the principles by which they are regulated of great importance. The difference between knowing and not knowing the nature of a letter of credit, when one has purchased it—how, and where, and with whom it is an available instrument of credit, known to the usages of commerce, and protected and sanctioned by the law of civilized countries—what rights it gives to the party making advances on the faith of it—the difference between knowing and not knowing some or all of these matters, is, to an intelligent merchant, a thing of no small moment. The last chapter in this work is devoted to inland bills of

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\* Commentaries on the Law of Bills of Exchange, Foreign and Inland, as administered in England and America; with occasional illustrations from the commercial law of the nations of continental Europe. By Joseph Story, LL.D. Boston: Charles C. Little and James Brown. London: A. Maxwell & Son, &c., &c., &c. pp. 608. 1843.

exchange. We confidently recommend the work to our commercial friends; and they will find the chief benefit resulting to *them*, in consulting and using it, in comparison with other treatises, will be, that it gives them principles, and rules, and doctrines, instead of abstract statements of particular decisions. It is one of those rare works, in the law, (most of which have been produced in this country,) of which a layman may read the text, and find that he has acquired real knowledge, by being made acquainted with principles; while the notes are enriched with a various and accurate learning that leaves the critical and studious lawyer nothing to desire, and in which the author is so distinguished.

We give below the chapter relating to guaranty of bills, and letters of credit, omitting the very copious notes, which occupy more space than the text, and are rather designed for the learned lawyer than the practical merchant.

#### GUARANTY OF BILLS, AND LETTERS OF CREDIT.

We have thus gone over the principal doctrines applicable to foreign Bills of Exchange. There remain one or two topics, which are, in some measure, connected therewith, and are of a kindred nature, upon one of which some remarks have already been incidentally made, but which deserve a more direct, although a brief, exposition and recapitulation in this place. These topics are, first, the Guaranty of Bills of Exchange; and, secondly, Letters of Credit, authorizing persons to draw foreign Bills, on the faith of such Letters. These are equally applicable to cases of Foreign, and cases of Inland, Bills of Exchange; but they are more frequent in the former cases.

In respect to the former, Guaranty of Bills, it is well known, and in much use, in cases of foreign Bills, in France, and other parts of Continental Europe. In France it is known by the name of *Aval*; and in Germany, at least, when a Latin appellation is affixed to it, by the name of *Avallum*. This guaranty is usually placed at the bottom of the Bill of Exchange, from which circumstance it is said to derive its name; and sometimes it is written upon a separate paper.

The effect, in France, and other foreign countries, of this *Aval* or Guaranty, subscribed at the bottom of the Bill, is, that it binds the Guarantor *in solido*, and subjects him to the like obligations, as the party on the Bill, for whom he has given it, at least, unless there is some different stipulation made by the parties, and also entitles him to the like rights, as the same party. It amounts, therefore, in effect, to a guaranty, that the party, for whom it is given, shall perform all the obligations, which the Bill itself imports on his part. The usual manner of accomplishing this purpose is, that the name of the Guarantor is preceded by the words "*pour Aval*." But this is not indispensable, for any equivalent form will do; and even the name of the Guarantor alone, written in blank, may, if that is the usage, bind the party as a Guarantor, where it is clear that he is not liable as an Indorser on the Bill.

It follows, from what has been said, that, in the French and Foreign Law, this contract of *Aval*, or Guaranty, when on the face of the Bill, is, in the absence of any restrictive or controlling words, an agreement, partaking of the character of the Bill itself, and is negotiable, and passes to, and gives the same rights to the Holder of the Bill, as if it were made personally to himself, and subjects him to the like obligations. And this quality is, beyond question, highly important to the true value, and easy circulation, and free credit, of Bills of Exchange. The like rule seems to prevail among the German Civilians; and it probably also prevails among the nations of Continental Europe generally; and it is fully recognized in the law of Scotland.

Whether, under our law, a like negotiable quality belongs to the like guaranty upon the face of the Bill, so as to give the Holder a complete legal right thereto, as well as to the Bill, has been a question of considerable discussion. It has been said, by a distinguished elementary writer, that, even in cases where a valid engagement of guaranty has been made, that a Bill of Exchange or note shall be paid, it is effectual only between the original parties to it, and not transferable at law, or in equity, or in bankruptcy. But this language is quite too general; for it is very certain that the party, to whom the guaranty is originally made, may, in equity, assign his right to the holder, at the same time that he assigns the Bill, and thereby vest in him the equitable, although not the legal title thereto. The language should further be understood to be limited to cases where

the guaranty, if it is on the face of the Bill, is, by its very terms, confined to the original party, to whom it is given; and the language does not, certainly it ought not to be extended to cases, where, by its very terms, the guaranty is to such party, and to his order, or to the bearer, or to any person, who shall subsequently become the Holder; for there does not seem to be any ground, or principle, in our law, which will, in such a case, limit the right, contrary to the avowed intention of the parties, to the first or original Guarantee. On the contrary, there would seem to be very urgent reasons why it should be deemed equivalent to a continued promise, upon a valid consideration, to every successive Holder for a valuable consideration, *toties quoties*, that the Guarantor promises the like guaranty to him personally.

There is great weight of authority for the maintenance of this doctrine, as well upon general principles, as upon the usage of the commercial world. And, with a view to the convenience, and the security of merchants, as well as the free circulation and credit of negotiable paper, it would seem, that such a guaranty, upon the face of a Bill of Exchange, not limited to any particular person, but purporting to be general, without naming any person whatsoever, or purporting to be a guaranty to the Payee, or his order, or to the bearer, ought to be held, upon the very intention of the parties, to be a complete guaranty to every successive person, who shall become the Holder of the Bill. Nay, the doctrine has been pressed farther, and it has been maintained, with great ability and cogency of reasoning, that such a guaranty upon a separate paper, ought to be held negotiable in the same manner, and to the same extent, in favor of each successive Holder of the Bill, as if it were upon the face of the original Bill.

In respect to Letters of Credit, which are in common use in our commerce with foreign countries, it may be stated, that a Letter of Credit (sometimes called a Bill of Credit) is an open letter of request, whereby one person (usually a merchant or a banker) requests some other person or persons to advance moneys, or give credit, to a third person named therein, for a certain amount, and promises that he will repay the same to the person advancing the same, or accept Bills, drawn upon himself, for the like amount. It is called a general letter of credit, when it is addressed to all merchants, or other persons in general, requesting such advance to a third person; and it is called a special letter of credit, when it is addressed to a particular person by name, requesting him to make such advance to a third person.

Marius gives the following description of Letters of Credit, of both sorts, and of their use and obligation. "Now, letters of credit, for the furnishing of moneys by exchange, are of two sorts, the one general, the other special; the general letter of credit is, when I write my open letter directed to all merchants, and others, that shall furnish moneys unto such and such persons, upon this my letter of credit, wherein, and whereby I do bind myself, that what moneys shall be by them delivered unto the party or parties, therein mentioned, within such a time, at such and such rates (or, in general terms, at the price current), I do thereby bind myself for to be accountable and answerable for the same, to be repaid according to the Bill or Bills of Exchange, which, upon receipt of the money so furnished, shall be given or delivered for the same. And, if any money be furnished upon such my general letter of credit, and Bills of Exchange therefore given, and charged, drawn, or directed to me, although, when the Bills come to hand, and are presented to me, I should refuse to accept thereof, yet (according to the custom of merchants) I am bound, and liable, to the payment of those Bills of Exchange, by virtue and force of such my general letter of credit, because he or they, which do furnish the money, have not so much (if any) respect unto the sufficiency or ability of the party, which doth take up the money, as unto me, who have given my letter of credit for the same, and upon whose credit, merely, those moneys may be properly said to have been delivered. The special letter of credit is, when a merchant, at the request of any other man, doth write his open letter of credit, directed to his factor, agent, or correspondent, giving him order to furnish such or such a man, by name, with such or such a sum of money, at one or more times, and charge it to the account of the merchant that gives the letter of credit, and takes Bills of Exchange, or receipts, for the same." And again; "Now, in the general letter of credit, he that writes it doth make use of his credit for his own account and concerns in his way of trade, and, therefore, there need no more than his letter of credit to make him liable to repay what shall be so furnished. But, in the particular letter of credit, he that writes the letter, doth it not to make use of the moneys himself, or to be employed for his own use, but for the use and accommodation of some other man, at whose request he is willing, and doth write his letter of credit; and, therefore, it is very expedient and ordinary for him, at whose entreaty the letter is written, at the writing, and upon receipt thereof, to give security by bond, or otherwise, unto the merchant that gives the letter of credit, for repayment unto him, his

executors, or assigns, of all such moneys as shall be received by virtue of the said letters of credit; for the merchant, by his letter, stands sufficiently bound to his correspondent; and, therefore, it is no more but reason, that he, for whom the letter is granted, should give (as it were) his counterbond for repayment. The Bills of Exchange, which are to be made for moneys taken up by letters of credit, do run in the ordinary form of Bills of Exchange."

This language would seem to be sufficiently explicit to establish the doctrine, that general letters of credit partake of a negotiable quality, and, according to the usage of merchants, are treated as a direct promise to repay the advance, or to accept and pay the Bill, which shall be drawn upon the advance, where the letter purports such a promise to repay, or accept and pay the Bill. There does not seem to be any ground to doubt, that the letter of credit is an available promise in favor of the person, who makes the advance upon the faith of the letter, if the letter is specially addressed to him. But it has been made a question, whether, if the letter of credit is a general one, addressed to any person or persons generally, without any other designation, the person making the advance upon the faith thereof, is entitled to a punctual performance of the promise contained therein, from the person signing the letter, as a floating contract, designed to circulate as a direct promise, in the nature of a negotiable security, for the benefit of any party, advancing funds on the faith thereof; or whether the remedy exclusively lies between the original party, writing the letter, and the party to whom, and for whose immediate use it was given.

The question does not appear to have been positively decided, or, indeed, to have been elaborately discussed in England. But, in America, it has come under judicial examination and decision in various cases. In the Supreme Court of the United States, the doctrine has been directly affirmed, on several occasions, that the Letter-writer is positively and directly bound to any party making the advance upon the faith of the Letter; and that it applies not only to cases where the Letter of Credit purports, on its face, to be addressed, generally, to any person or persons whatsoever, who should make the advance, but also in cases where the Letter of Credit is addressed solely to the person to whom the advance is to be made, and merely states, that the person, signing the same, will become his security for a certain amount, without naming any person, to whom he will become security, if it is obviously to be used to procure credit from some third person, and the advance is made upon the faith of the Letter by such third person. And it has been further held, that, if the engagement be, to accept and pay any Bills, not exceeding a limited amount, drawn by the person to whom, and for whose benefit, the advance is to be made; in such a case, the person, taking such Bills, and making the advance upon the faith thereof, if the promise of the Letter-writer cannot be treated as a positive acceptance of such Bills, is entitled to treat it as a direct promise to himself to accept and pay such Bill, which promise he may enforce, accordingly, in an action in his name, founded upon such Letter of Credit, against the writer thereof.

Mr. Bell, in his learned Commentaries, has given his own opinion, as to the nature and operation of Letters of Credit, in the following expressive language. "Letters of Credit, strictly speaking, are mandates, giving authority to the person addressed to pay money, or furnish goods, on the credit of the writer. They are generally made use of for facilitating the supply of money, or goods, required by one going to a distance or abroad, and avoiding the risk and trouble of carrying specie, or buying Bills to a greater amount than may be required. The debt, which arises on such a Letter, in its simplest form, when complied with, is between the mandatory and mandant; though it may be so conceived as to raise a debt also against the person, who is supplied by the mandatory. 1. Where the letter is purchased with money by the person wishing for the foreign credit; or, is granted in consequence of a check on his cash account; or, procured on the credit of securities lodged with the person who grants it; or, in payment of money due by him to the Payee; the Letter is, in its effects, similar to a Bill of Exchange drawn on the foreign merchant. The payment of the money by the person, on whom the Letter is granted, raises a debt, or goes into account between him and the writer of the Letter; but raises no debt to the person, who pays on the Letter, against him to whom the money is paid. 2. Where not so purchased, but truly an accommodation, and meant to raise a debt against the person accommodated, the engagement generally is, to see paid any advances made to him, or to guarantee any draft accepted, or Bill discounted; and the compliance with the mandate, in such case, raises a debt both against the writer of the Letter, and against the person accredited."

## MERCANTILE LAW DEPARTMENT.

### MERCANTILE LAW CASES.

#### LIABILITY OF SHIPS IN CASE OF FORCED LOAN FOR REPAIRS.

United States District Court of Massachusetts, March Term, 1843. *Shelton and others vs. Brig Mary.*

Specie was shipped from Boston to Porto Cabello, for the purpose of purchasing a return cargo. The vessel was obliged to put into Antigua, on account of a disaster; where the master, being destitute of funds, sold a part of the specie for the purpose of making repairs, and the vessel proceeded to the port of destination, and thence to Boston. It was admitted that the specie thus taken should be paid for in general average, at its value at Porto Cabello—the only question presented was, whether, in making an adjustment, the libellants should be allowed interest on the specie so taken, from the time when they would have had the benefit of it at Porto Cabello.

Sprague, district judge, decided that the libellants were entitled to such interest, inasmuch as it is the general principle of law that the shipper must be compensated in such cases—the measure of compensation being such as is necessary to place him in as good a situation as he would have been in had the property of some other shipper been taken instead of his. To place him in such a situation, however, it is necessary that payment should be made to him at the port of destination, as there he needed his cargo to carry on his enterprise. Having a right to have the goods shipped delivered to him at the port of destination, so has he the right to have that which without his consent has been substituted for the goods, delivered to him at the same place. As this was not done, he has a claim for damages; and interest is the established measure of damages for the non-payment of money.

#### INSURANCE—MARITIME USAGE.

District Court of Massachusetts, in Admiralty, February, 1843.

The schooner *Eddington* went into Provincetown harbor in a gale of wind. After coming to anchor, she was driven from her moorings towards the flats, where she was brought up by her small anchor, and lay head to the wind. In this position she was run foul of, in the night-time, by another vessel, the *Lion*, having no person on board. A principal question discussed was, whether the owners of the *Lion* had omitted a reasonable and ordinary measure of security, and whether the collision was attributable to their neglect, notwithstanding a usage at Provincetown to leave vessels owned in that place, and manned by persons residing there, at anchor in the harbor, without any persons on board. Sprague, district judge, observed, in delivering his opinion in this case, that the neglect with which the *Lion* is charged consists in leaving her alone, when it was seen that a gale was coming on, with from thirty to fifty vessels at anchor in the harbor. A vessel is doubtless rendered more safe from collision when some person is on board; but the owners of the *Lion* were not bound to use any extraordinary measures of precaution. The question is, have they omitted a reasonable and ordinary measure of precaution? The general sense of the maritime world, and of maritime writers, indicates that a vessel should not be left without some one on board. This position is confirmed by numerous witnesses who have been examined in this case; but it also proved to be the usage at Provincetown to leave vessels owned in that place, and manned by persons residing there, at anchor in the harbor, without any person on board, in every aspect of the weather. There is some evidence produced of a similar usage in other places in Massachusetts; but all those places, except Cape Ann, are tide harbors, and the evidence is

by no means satisfactory as to the extent or limitations of the usage. The people of Truro, it appears, adopt the usages of their neighbors in fair weather; but when a gale is seen to be approaching, some person is put on board to guard the vessel. The usage must be considered as confined to the inhabitants of Provincetown. "The usage was followed in the present case. The respondents urge, in the first place, that they adopted all ordinary precautions. Secondly, that the adoption of such a usage, by the prudent inhabitants of Provincetown, is evidence of its safety. But the last point suggests two considerations:—First, that the practice of the inhabitants of Truro shows, on the other hand, that it is *not* safe to leave a vessel alone when a gale is foreseen; and, in the next place, this practice is not adopted by the Provincetown mariners because it is safe, but only because it is convenient; their vessels usually being small, and the officers and crews having their homes at Provincetown. Shall a stranger-vessel, like that of the libellant's, be subjected to the hazards of such a usage? This is not a case of contract, where a party has made an agreement with reference to a known usage. The harbor of Provincetown is open to all vessels of the United States. When it is said that *ordinary* precaution was used, the truth of the position depends upon the standard to which reference is had. If referred to the practice of the inhabitants of Provincetown, it is true; but with reference to the general maritime standard, it is not true. When the libellant entered the harbor at Provincetown, he was bound by the general maritime rules and usages, and has a right to rely upon their observance by others using the same waters."

Decree in favor of libellant.

#### FIRE INSURANCE.

New York Superior Court—present, Judge Oakley. June term, 1843. John Raynor *vs.* New York Fire Insurance Company.

This was an action upon a policy of insurance upon a frame house at the corner of the Third Avenue, which the defendants insured for the plaintiffs, describing it as "to be kept for a grocery." The house took fire, and was consumed; and in the progress of the fire, an explosion was caused by a barrel of gunpowder in the grocery. The defendants contended that the policy was annulled by reason of the plaintiff's keeping powder, an extra-hazardous article, on the premises insured. But his Honor, having declared it to be the law that the rights of the plaintiff must depend on the question whether or not it is *customary* for groceries to contain gunpowder, and the plaintiff having proved such to be the custom, a verdict was rendered for plaintiffs for \$1,500.

#### CHARTER-PARTY.

Superior Court. Jonathan D. Cathell *vs.* Medad Platt.

This was an action upon a charter-party. In December, 1841, J. C. and M. Stevenson, of Newbern, North Carolina, employed defendant as their agent to charter a schooner, which he accordingly did, from the plaintiff. The defendant was described in the charter-party as the agent of the plaintiff.

His Honor, the chief justice, however, charged the jury that, inasmuch as the defendant had signed, and virtually chartered the vessel as a principal, notwithstanding he was described in the body of the charter-party as an agent, he was personally and primarily bound to pay the stipulated price to the plaintiff. Verdict for plaintiff.

#### COMMON CARRIERS.

New York Court of Errors, June session, 1843. J. N. Vanderbilt, plaintiff in error, *vs.* Joseph Tobey, defendant in error.

This was an action originally commenced by the defendant in error in the Superior Court of the city of New York, for the recovery of the value of certain goods delivered by him to the plaintiff in error, (who is a steamboat proprietor,) for transportation to

Albany. A judgment was obtained by Mr. Tobey in the Superior Court, and this judgment was afterwards affirmed upon the merits in the Supreme Court. The cause was then appealed to the Court of Errors, which also affirmed the original judgment, and virtually decided that common carriers are liable for the safe transportation of the goods entrusted to them, unless the loss of such goods be occasioned by the act of God, or the public enemies; and that they are so liable, although they may have affixed public notices, purporting that "all baggage is at the risk of the owner."

LANDLORD AND TENANT—ACTION OF TRESPASS—EXEMPTION LAW OF NEW YORK OF 1842.

In the Court of Common Pleas, Judge Inglis presiding. *Morris Flynn vs. George Barclay and Simon P. Huff.*

This was an action of trespass under the act of 1842. It was to recover damages for illegally seizing a horse of the plaintiff's for rent, in violation of the law which provides that, "in addition to the articles now exempted by law from distress for rent, there shall be exempted from such distress, and levy, and sale, such necessary household furniture and working-tools, and team owned by any person being a householder, or having a family, for which he provides, to the value of not exceeding \$150."

In this case, the plaintiff rented a stable, on which rent was due to the defendant Barclay, who procured a landlord's warrant, and levied on the plaintiff's cart-horse, and had it sold. On the part of the plaintiff, it was contended that the horse came under the articles exempted by law under the term *team*, and that therefore the defendants have committed a trespass against the plaintiff by levying on it.

The court charged the jury. The first inquiry was, whether the property levied on was of that sort exempted by the act of April, 1842. The exemption extends to \$150 worth of household furniture, tools, wearing apparel, and team owned by the lodger—and if \$150 worth of articles were left, although other articles enumerated amongst those which are exempt, are levied on, and taken away, it does not render the person taking them responsible for doing so. If the articles are not owned by a householder, or man having a family, the law does not exempt them.

Much criticism has been resorted to in relation to the word "team," and I have taken some pains, by looking into dictionaries and other sources, to ascertain the meaning of that word. But before I state my conclusion as to its legal meaning, I will observe that it often happens that statutes are not drawn up with clerical correctness, or logical or critical propriety, from the persons who do it not paying sufficient attention to these matters. Therefore, the great and important question to be ascertained is, as to the sense in which the legislature intended to use the words.

It is said that the word "team" cannot refer to the horse of a carman, as the word *team* is used by the best writers as referring to more than one animal, and cannot be held to mean a single horse—and I confess that, so far as the usage of this word by old English authors, it appears, from many examples, that the word had originally only a plural sense. It is, however, said that the word is not derived from the Latin, but from an Anglo-Saxon word, which means a yoke, and that it does not refer to more than one animal. Counsel says that such is the proper use of the word, and I think it is, at least in the present case; although ordinarily, when we speak of a team, we mean more than one animal. But we must look at what was the object of the legislature in passing the law in which this word is used. The object of the statute was obviously to prevent the poorer class from having all their little chattels taken away from them, or be deprived of the means of procuring subsistence. With this object in view, we find that the law has exempted furniture and a "team" from being levied on; and I think, under that view of the law, a horse must be held to mean a team. But for the remarks of counsel, I might have been inclined to think that the legislature meant more than one horse by the

word team. But the act was perhaps drawn up by a person who resided in a rural district, and therefore used the word team. But if asked what did the word mean in the case of a farmer, who was so poor that he possessed but one animal, he would most probably say, that the word "team" meant but one animal. And, though I say it with some doubt, I think the word team means a single animal. If, therefore, in import and judgment of law, this horse was a "team," then the next inquiry is, was the plaintiff a carman. It appears that he had the mayor's license, dated in August before; and, although he did not do much work with his horse, and had offered to sell it, his having done so does not take away the privileges conferred on him by this act. As to his being a householder, I think that a man who rents the upper part of a house comes under the denomination of householder. If you come to the conclusion that he was a householder and carman, then the question will be, were there sufficient articles left him to amount to \$150. If there were, then the horse was rightfully taken. As this is a special statute, taking away the common-law right of the landlord, it is the plaintiff's duty to make out his case to you plain, and without doubt. Verdict for the plaintiff, \$66. For plaintiff, Messrs. De Witt, and F. Brown; for defendant, Mr. Benedict.

### MONTHLY COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE.

THIS is a period of the year when commercial affairs are usually exceedingly dull, and the present month has not been singular in that respect. There are abundant elements of improved commercial prosperity; but as yet the movement is not such as to cause any increased demand for money. In all sections of the country, the returns of tolls on the public works, those great arteries of trade, show, without exception, increased receipts over former years. On the New York state canals, in particular, although there has been but sixty days of navigation up to July 1st, the receipts were actually larger to that time than in 1842, when the canals had been open seventy days. The receipts of tolls, and of flour and wheat, at tide-water, have been as follows:

	TOLLS.		RECEIPTS OF FLOUR AT TIDE-WATER.			
	4th week in June. Dollars.	Total to July 1st. Dollars.	4th week in June. Flour.	Wheat.	Total to July. Flour.	Wheat.
1842,.....	53,244 18	593,699 83	30,914	19,973	413,157	159,641
1843,.....	64,664 14	612,896 01	68,373	9,104	438,298	102,335
Increase,....	11,399 96	19,196 18	37,359	.....	25,441	.....
Decrease,....	.....	.....	.....	10,869	.....	57,306

Taking into view the shorter period of navigation, this increase is large; and the same feature is apparent in all other quarters. It consists, for the most part, of produce coming to market, rather than any increase of merchandise going to the interior. The outlet for most of the surplus produce is abroad; and, under the new English tariff, the market for American provisions is rapidly extending there. Although, at the latest dates, the prospect of the English harvest was good, and prices therefore comparatively heavy, yet the demand for United States produce was on the increase, and prices well sustained. If the means of paying for those importations into England were left free and untrammelled, the intercourse between the two countries would extend with immense rapidity, to the benefit of the agricultural interests. Unfortunately, however, in the present state of things, specie is almost the only remittance this way in return—a fact which weighs heavily upon the markets. The prices of produce continue very low, although they are advancing; and we believe that almost all those who have embarked in agricultural products during the past spring, have been more than remunerated for their outlay. The margin of profits left in the hands of the producers, at the low rates at which they have parted

with their products, has been too small to cause any great increase of purchasers of supplies by them; hence, the demand for domestic and imported goods has not revived in a degree sufficient to raise the prices from the extreme low grade to which they had fallen, in consequence of the contraction of the currency, and the diminished means of the consumers. Domestic goods have fallen so low, that a large export trade sprung up, and took off considerable quantities, without materially affecting values. It is not pretended that domestic goods can be exported at a profit; but the fact that they are so exported, and sold in foreign markets on an equal footing with foreign manufactures, in preference to selling here, where they enjoy a discriminating duty of 60 to 150 per cent, is an appalling proof of the prostration which has overtaken the domestic markets, notwithstanding the exceeding abundance of the crops—a prostration which could only have been effected by the paralyzing effect of pernicious legislation. Another indication of the presence of some unnatural obstacle to the revival of trade, is the continued and increasing abundance of money. Notwithstanding the low prices of every article of commerce, for nearly one year, money has continued to accumulate in the Atlantic banks, while the means of employing it have been constantly diminishing. The state of the market is peculiarly manifest in the operations of the federal government. In 1841, a loan was authorized, to meet the deficiency in revenue. A part only of that loan was taken, and the remainder hung upon the market in the summer of 1842, without meeting any bidders, although it was offering at almost “any price,” and the state of New York borrowed \$3,000,000, at 7 per cent, at par. An agent was despatched to Europe to negotiate the loan, with utter ill success. In the mean time, money continued to accumulate in the banks, as the crops went forward, and outstanding accounts were settled, until February, 1843, when the balance of the 6 per cent loan, \$3,500,000, was taken at par. In our June number, we published the notice of the Secretary of the Treasury, to redeem the outstanding treasury-notes on the 30th June, 1843. We then remarked that it was highly probable that the necessary amount could be obtained at par, for a 5 per cent stock. Subsequently, proposals for a loan of \$7,000,000 were issued, and taken mostly by New York houses, at \$101 01. A small lot was taken at \$102 37½, and another at \$101 55. Immediately afterward, the stock rose to 5½ per cent premium in the market. The treasury-notes redeemed were mostly held by banking institutions for investment, and paying them off threw a large sum of money into the market for re-investment. For the employment of banking funds, United States government stocks are the most desirable; because, being all held on this side of the water, there is no danger, how high soever prices may rise, that amounts from abroad, sufficiently large to produce revulsion, will be suddenly thrown upon the market—a danger which would be incurred if the rates of state stocks were carried as high. On these stocks, the banks loan their money at call, many of them as low as 4 per cent per annum, keeping a margin of 10 per cent as security against sudden fluctuations. This abundance of money is not general—it is merely corporate and banking. On the contrary, many sections of the country, and most industrial pursuits, experience a scarcity. Business moves so sluggishly, and that on a cash basis, that very little paper is created of that character most desired by the banks.

The true value of the United States 5 per cent stock, of \$7,000,000, ten years to run, interest payable semi-annually, to yield 5 per cent per annum on the investment, is 100.48 per cent; and at the price given, 101.01, is therefore .527 in excess of that value, and yields an interest of 4.9929 per cent. For causes above enumerated, then, government stocks command the highest prices; while others, equally good as security, sell very low—that is, they yield much higher rates of interest. Assuming 5 per cent to be the rate of interest in the stock-market, the real value of some of the dividend-paying stocks are as follows, compared with their market prices :—

Stocks.	Interest.	Redeemable.	Value.	Market price.
United States,.....	6's semi-annual	1862	\$112 99	114½ a 115
" .....	5's "	1853	100 48	103½ a 104
Massachusetts,.....	5's "	1868	100 88	102 a 102½
Kentucky,.....	6's "	1868	115 15	95½ a 96
Tennessee,.....	6's "	1868	115 15	91½ a 92
Ohio,.....	6's "	1860	112 11	89½ a 90
New York,.....	7's "	1849	110 81	108½ a 109
" .....	6's "	1862	113 44	108 a 108½
" .....	5's "	1858	100 97	99½ a 100

This table shows very clearly the artificial state of the market. Those stocks on which corporate means have been brought more particularly to bear, for want of some more legitimate means of employing their funds, are very high; while other stocks, and those of distant states, are kept down, chiefly by the excess of the supply of stocks above the surplus of individual means seeking such investments, and the amount of new stock constantly coming upon the market for sale. Large amounts of stocks, never yet absorbed by the investments of individuals, have been pledged, by the original contractors for the loans, with third parties, for debts. As the prices have improved, these latter have been tempted to realize. Of this description, are the \$14,000,000 of stocks held by the London houses as collateral for the debentures of the United States Bank. Also, near \$700,000 of Kentucky and Tennessee bonds, being part of original loans taken by the Baltimore American Life and Trust Company, and assigned by that company to a London house to secure a debt, have been gradually coming into this market for sale, at the same time that the state of Kentucky has been gradually converting its outstanding scrip, issued to contractors, into 6 per cent bonds. These have been among the leading causes out of which has grown the inequality in stock values. The abundance of money, which, in the New York and eastern banks, has compelled them to seek the stocks of their own states and the federal government for investment, is gradually extending to the institutions in other sections—south, southwest, and west. The commercial indebtedness due by those sections to the north and east, has been mostly settled during the past year, and the banks are beginning to show an accumulation of specie, and diminution of loans, consequent upon the maturity of paper, and the absence of new applications. As the new crops come forward to enhance this feature, some other description of investment must be found; and the New York example, of stock loans, will probably be followed. The prices of stocks must, in such an event, continue high, and become uniform, and the rate of interest low on commercial paper.

In this posture of affairs, there seems to be a movement in progress to effect a change in the features of business-paper. It is, to accept for large sales short notes, drawn to the order of the buyer, and to offer them for discount without the endorsement of the seller. A combination of influential merchants, at a time like this, might effect a revolution in this particular, and thus throw the weight of mercantile risks upon corporations, rather than, as now, upon knots of mutual endorsers. It is frequently the case that these cliques absorb a very large proportion of all the means of an association; thus acting in reverse of the axiom, that the wider range over which moderate risks are spread, on certain conditions, acting in the nature of an insurance premium, the more secure are the operations, and the more infallible is the aggregate and eventual profit. The Parisian bankers, operating upon this principle, discount but a limited amount to each individual customer, over whose habits and business an unremitting watchfulness is kept up. This threatened change in the manner of doing business, has had a great influence upon the banks, as well as the operation of the new law of the state of New York, which went into operation July 1st. That law prescribes, as its leading features, that the banks of the state shall hereafter make quarterly statements of their affairs public, commencing on the first Monday of August, 1843; and that they shall issue no circulating bills except those to be derived from, and countersigned by the comptroller, with whom the plates are depos-

ited. These bills have already superseded the others in circulation. The principle on which this latter regulation was based, is, that the institutions cannot be trusted with their own issues. The public has so often sustained heavy losses by the illegal pledging of their notes, that it requires legislative interference. This produces a singular difference between the issues of the banks under the free banking law, and those of the chartered banks, viz: the *free* banks can issue no bills without depositing adequate security, in New York state stocks—the chartered banks can issue without any security.

The trade between the United States and Europe has, of late years, reversed its character, inasmuch as that the policy of the United States has approached to the prohibitive, while that of England and Europe has become more liberal. The following will show the amount of articles imported into France and England in 1840, with the amount of duties levied upon them; and of the import of dutiable imports into the United States, with the accruing duties for 1842:—

	Imports into England. Dollars.	Duties. Dollars.	Imports into France. Dollars.	Duties. Dollars.	Imports into U. States. Dollars.	Duties. Dollars.
Tobacco,....	3,227,880	20,514,816	4,841,998	2,836	.....	.....
Other art's.,	50,777,910	7,845,337	24,618,757	2,345,037	62,015,693	16,840,219
Total,.	54,005,790	28,360,153	29,450,754	2,347,873	62,015,693	16,840,219

With the exception of tobacco, the average English duties are 15 per cent, the French duties 8 per cent, and the United States duties 35.8 per cent. The import duty on tobacco into France is small, but that article is a monopoly enjoyed by the government, and therefore the whole impositions upon it are great. In England, the levy upon tobacco is direct and enormous. This great tax upon tobacco has been one of the most effective arguments in favor of a retaliative tariff. The tax imposed by France on the article is an internal regulation, affecting French, equally with foreign tobacco. The quantity raised in France is about 30,000 hhds., or more than double the amount she receives from the United States. In England, an important revenue is derived from the customs on tobacco, amounting, as seen above, to £4,000,000, or 11 per cent of the whole revenues of the kingdom. The article of tobacco is a luxury, and is incapable of application to any other object than that of chewing and smoking, which is entirely an acquired taste. The quantity used by any individual for these purposes, is necessarily so small, that, however great the burden upon tobacco may be, it is to him of but little importance. The weed differs from all other articles of merchandise in two particulars. If the price is very high, those who are addicted to it can find no substitute, and they must pay the price. On the other hand, no matter how low the price may fall, more than a certain quantity is desired by no votary. It can be applied to no other purpose, nor will those not accustomed to it commence its use because it is cheap. Gradually, with the progress of population, in all parts of the world, the use of tobacco increases; and facts before us show that the increase keeps in advance of production. These facts are furnished by the treasury tables. The following will show the total exports of tobacco from the United States since 1821, with the average yearly prices per hhd. :—

EXPORT OF TOBACCO FROM THE UNITED STATES FROM 1841 TO 1842.

Years.	Total value of tobacco exported.	Value of snuff and manuf'd.	Hhds.	Value.	Value per hhd.
1821,.....	\$5,798,045	\$149,083	66,858	\$5,648,962	\$84 49
1822,.....	6,380,020	157,182	83,169	6,222,838	74 82
1823,.....	6,437,627	154,955	99,609	6,282,272	63 46
1824,.....	5,059,355	203,789	77,883	4,855,566	62 34
1825,.....	6,287,976	172,353	75,984	6,115,623	80 48
1826,.....	5,557,342	210,134	64,098	5,347,208	83 42
1827,.....	6,816,147	239,024	100,025	6,577,123	65 75
Average 7 years,.	\$6,084,073	\$183,788	81,003	\$5,864,227	\$73 53

## EXPORTS OF TOBACCO FROM THE UNITED STATES—Continued.

Years.	Total value of tobacco exported.	Value of snuff and manuf'd.	Hhds.	Value.	Value per hhd.
1828,.....	\$5,480,707	\$210,747	96,278	\$5,296,960	\$54 73
1829,.....	5,185,370	202,306	77,131	4,982,974	64 60
1830,.....	5,833,112	246,747	83,810	5,586,365	66 65
1831,.....	5,184,863	292,475	86,718	4,892,388	56 40
1832,.....	6,295,540	295,771	106,506	5,999,769	56 18
1833,.....	6,043,941	288,973	83,153	5,755,968	69 29
1834,.....	6,923,714	328,409	87,979	6,595,305	74 96
Average 7 years,.	\$5,849,749	\$265,061	85,982	\$5,583,247	\$63 25
1835,.....	\$8,608,188	\$357,611	94,353	\$8,250,577	\$87 01
1836,.....	10,494,104	435,464	109,442	10,058,640	91 54
1837,.....	6,223,483	427,836	100,232	5,795,647	57 82
1838,.....	7,969,449	577,420	100,593	7,392,029	73 48
1839,.....	10,449,155	616,212	78,995	9,832,943	124 47
1840,.....	10,697,628	813,671	119,484	9,883,957	81 05
1841,.....	13,450,580	873,877	147,828	12,576,703	85 09
Average 7 years,.	\$9,698,941	\$586,013	107,275	\$9,112,928	\$85 92
Total, 21 years, \$151,177,346	\$7,254,129	1,876,828	\$143,923,217	\$76 23	

This table presents certainly a very curious result. In the second seven years, ending with 1834, a very slight increase, only, took place in the quantity exported, yet the price fell largely. The seven years in which this took place were precisely those embraced by the operation of the high tariff. In the succeeding seven years, during which the compromise tariff was in progress, a constant increase in exports took place, accompanied by as regular an increase in price. Without alleging the tariff to be the cause of that singular variation, we recommend our planting friends to keep it in view, as a remarkable coincidence. Since 1834, the tobacco trade has been developed in a remarkable manner. The quantity exported in 1841 was far greater than ever before, and the price higher than the average. Now this constantly increasing export, accompanied by constantly increasing money-value, is pretty conclusive proof that demand is in excess of supply, more especially if we keep in view the fact that, during the last few years, all other articles have fallen immensely in money-value. From these data, it may be inferred that the steady and regular impositions of foreign governments upon the article of tobacco, however onerous they may be to the consumers of the article among their own citizens, are far less hurtful to the planting interest than a prohibitive tariff here, which, by excluding foreign goods, deprives them of the means of buying the tobacco at any price. If it is alleged that the impositions of foreign governments restrict the consumption of tobacco, then does the onerous tariff of the United States prohibit it altogether. But it does not appear that the foreign imposts restrict the consumption, because almost the whole production is imported; and, above all other articles, increasing quantities command improved prices. The export of snuff and manufactured tobacco has increased exceedingly, having more than doubled in quantity and value since 1834. The following is a table of the places to which manufactured tobacco has been exported since 1833:—

## EXPORTS OF MANUFACTURED TOBACCO FROM THE UNITED STATES.

	Hanse towns.	Holland.	England & colonies.	Brit. Amer. colonies.	France.	Other places.	Total.
	Pounds.	Pounds.	Pounds.	Pounds.	Pounds.	Pounds.	Pounds.
1833,.....	136,846	169,682	710,660	1,259,856	628	1,512,758	3,790,310
1834,.....	76,794	17,394	671,923	1,576,648	60,000	1,553,820	3,956,579
1835,.....	238,795	.....	755,853	1,342,924	21,654	1,458,628	3,817,854
1836,.....	11,459	.....	217,099	1,196,082	1,650	1,820,387	3,246,675
1837,.....	77,818	.....	828,525	1,262,340	18,571	1,428,337	3,615,591

EXPORTS OF MANUFACTURED TOBACCO—Continued.

	Hanse towns.	Holland.	England & colonies.	Brit. Amer. colonies.	France.	Other places.	Total.
	Pounds.	Pounds.	Pounds.	Pounds.	Pounds.	Pounds.	Pounds.
1838,.....	280,123	34,603	1,694,571	1,608,908	51,388	1,338,554	5,008,047
1839,.....	276,801	136,973	1,454,996	1,266,716	.....	545,352	4,214,943
1840,.....	526,236	43,467	2,497,664	1,831,536	7,550	1,880,713	6,787,165
1841,.....	257,124	31,364	2,825,737	1,769,935	59,982	2,559,602	7,503,644

The trade to England and its dependencies has rapidly and largely increased, having risen in quantity 400 per cent in nine years. The gross exports have doubled in quantity, and the value, as seen in the above table, has increased 200 per cent. The quantity exported increased 100 per cent, and the value 200 per cent, most of it to England. These are incontrovertible facts; and that this rapid increase of trade took place precisely in those years when, simultaneous with the generally modified tariff of England, the descending scale of the United States compromise act encouraged freedom of intercourse, are practical evidences of the benefit of reciprocity. The policy of the United States was entirely changed by the twenty-seventh Congress. The system which led to an extended introduction of United States produce in European countries and their dependencies, in exchange for the products of their industry, has been changed. The growing export trade, in agricultural products, has received a rude shock. The streams of commercial intercourse have been suddenly dammed up, and the energies of the people sought to be turned into channels other than in which their circumstances and their natural disposition directed them. From a lucrative cultivation of the soil, whereby they profitably availed themselves of the cheap labor of Europe, they are driven into new employments, and hazardous enterprises, in opposition to the capital, skill, and pauper labor of the tottering and debt-covered monarchies of the old world. While this terrible revolution has been put on foot by political partisans, the financial movement of the federal government has been changed. From 1822, down to 1837, the government borrowed no money, but paid off \$140,000,000, or nearly \$10,000 per annum; which, released from stocks, sought other employments. In 1837, the government again began to borrow; and the twenty-seventh Congress has borrowed and spent \$37,135,091 more than its legitimate receipts, creating a debt of \$27,394,261. This is the first debt contracted for revenue purposes, in time of peace, since the formation of the government, and is a fearful evidence of maladministration. It is the result of a bold and ruthless change in commercial regulations, whereby mercantile energies are paralyzed, and the sources of revenue dried up.

EXPORTS TO THE UNITED STATES.

*Exports of Cottons, Linens, Woollens, Worsteds, and Blankets, from Liverpool to the United States.*

Year.	Cottons.	Linens.	Woollens.	Worsteds.	Blankets.	Tot. pks.
1836,.....	41,517	21,123	28,256	8,932	5,777	105,505
1837,.....	13,113	8,125	10,169	4,851	2,612	38,870
1838,.....	26,584	15,062	16,350	7,236	2,050	67,282
1839,.....	23,909	18,502	20,031	7,667	3,798	73,907
1840,.....	19,912	14,914	9,462	4,677	1,248	50,213
1841,.....	28,729	21,113	14,841	8,582	2,538	75,803
1842,.....	13,671	11,054	10,357	5,391	1,826	42,299

## COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.

## IMPORT DUTIES AT ST. JOHNS.

STATEMENT OF DUTIES PAYABLE ON AND AFTER THE 5TH JULY, 1843, ON IMPORTS BY LAND OR INLAND NAVIGATION.

*Articles prohibited.*

	Imper. duties.	Provin. dut.
Arms, ammunition, and utensils of war,.....	Prohibited.	Prohibited.
Base or counterfeit coin,.....	"	"
Books—such as are prohibited to be imported into the United Kingdom, being such books of which copyright has been secured, and now in force,.....	"	"

*Free of Duty.*

Beef, (fresh,) cattle or live stock, Indian corn, fish, (fresh,) grain of all kinds, pork, (fresh,) meal or flour, except wheat flour, potatoes, provisions or stores of every description imported for the use of Her Majesty's land or sea forces,.....	Free.	Free.
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*Subject to duty of 4 per cent.*

Beans, peas, seeds, except garden seeds,.....	4 per cent.	"
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*Subject to duty of 5 per cent.*

Biscuit or bread, cotton wool, diamonds and bullion, drugs, fruit and vegetables (fresh) except potatoes, gums and resins, hemp, flax, tow, hay and straw, hides, (raw,) manures of all kinds, rice, tallow, meats (fresh) of all kinds, except beef and pork, tortoiseshell, wood and lumber,.....	Free.	5 per cent.
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*Subject to different duties.*

Blubber, fins and skins, the produce of creatures in the sea, spermaceti, glass manufactures, silk manufactures,.....	15 p. cent.	"
Oils, (fish of all kinds,).....	"	Free.
Cotton manufactures, clocks and watches, corks, candles, except spermaceti, cordage and oakum, hardware of all descriptions, linen manufactures, leather manufactures, woollen manufactures, paper manufactures, soap manufactures,.....	7 per cent.	5 per cent.
Butter,.....	8s. p. cwt.	"
Beef or pork, salted or cured,.....	3s. "	Free.
All other meat, salted or cured,.....	3s. "	5 per cent.
Cheese,.....	5s. "	"
Coffee, green,.....	5s. "	2d. per lb.
" roasted,.....	5s. "	5 per cent.
" ground,.....	5s. "	4d. per lb.
Cocoa,.....	1s. "	5 per cent.
Fish, salted or dried,.....	2s. "	Free.
" pickled, per barrel,.....	4s. per bbl.	Free.
Molasses,.....	3s. p. cwt.	1s. 6d. cwt.
Syrups,.....	4 per cent.	"
Sugar, refined,.....	20 "	2d. per lb.
" unrefined,.....	5s. p. cwt.	1d. "
Tobacco, manufactured, all kinds,.....	7 per cent.	2d. "
" leaf,.....	4s. p. cwt.	1d. "
Tea,.....	1d. per lb.	3d. "
Salt, per barrel of 280 lbs.,.....	Free.	2s. 6d. bbl.
Wheat flour, per barrel of 196 lbs.,.....	2s. per bbl.	Free.
Wine, (Madeira,).....	7 per cent.	1s. per gal.
" all others,.....	7 "	6d. "
Spirits, cordials or strong waters, sweetened or mixed, so that the strength cannot be ascertained,.....	1s. per gal.	1s. 7d. gal.
Spirits or strong waters, except rum, not mixed or sweetened, and not exceeding strength of proof,.....	1s. "	6d. "

And further for any greater strength than proof, ..... Imper. duties. Provin. dut.  
 And further in addition for every 100 gallons, not exceeding 1s. 6d. gal.  
 the strength of proof, £2 10s.—per 10 per cent over proof,  
 £2 5s.—for 20 per cent over proof, £2—and so in proportion  
 for any greater or less strength or quantity.

Rum, not mixed or sweetened, and not exceeding strength of  
 proof, ..... 6d. per gal. 6d. “  
 And further, for any greater strength, ..... 1s. “  
 And further, in addition for every 100 gallons, without any  
 reference to strength, £2 10s., or 6d. per gallon, and so in  
 proportion for any greater or less quantity.

Household goods, and necessaries of all kinds for private use,  
 the property of persons coming to settle within this province,  
 are subject to duty under the imperial act 5 and 6 Victoria,  
 chap. 49, according to their description.

All articles not enumerated, except such as are comprised or referred to in the table of exemptions, are subject to duty, ..... 4 per cent. 5 per cent.

We mention a few articles of general import paying this duty:—

Ashes, arrow root, apples, (dried,) baskets, bricks, bristles, brooms, cement, chocolate, cider, crockery, currants, dye-woods, earthenware, essences, fruit, preserved or pickled, figs, furs, honey, hops, indigo, leather, lard, lemon syrup, marble, medicines, musical instruments, nuts of all kinds, oil of lard, oil olives, pepper, pickles, pitch, prunes, raisins, salad oil, spices, sponge, starch, straw, all manufactures of, tar, vinegar, whetstones, &c.

By virtue of the imperial act 3 and 4 William IV, cap. 59, and provincial statute 4 and 5 Victoria, cap. 16, all goods imported into this province may be bonded for warehousing without payment of duties on the first of entry thereof. Bonds may be given for all provincial duties, when amounting to £50 currency and upwards, with conditions for payment in six months from date of such bonds, if the same shall be dated on or before the first day of September; and if dated after the first day of September, then they become due on the first of April next ensuing. All duties collected under the imperial act shall be deemed sterling money of Great Britain, and be paid and received according to the imperial weights and measures now by law established. All duties collected under the provincial statute shall be deemed sterling money of Great Britain, and shall be paid and received according to British weights and measures in use on 6th July, 1825. Ten per cent will be added to invoice cost of all articles paying per centage duties under the imperial act, and duties will be levied accordingly.

#### VALUATION OF REAL AND PERSONAL PROPERTY OF NEW YORK.

It will be seen that the value of real estate in the state at large, is nearly double what it was in 1828, and in the city more than double. The personal property has increased in nearly the same ratio.

Year.	NEW YORK STATE—INCLUDING CITY.		NEW YORK CITY.	
	Real.	Personal.	Real.	Personal.
1828,.....	\$275,861,471	\$68,785,292	\$87,603,580	\$37,684,938
1831,.....	289,457,104	75,258,726	97,221,870	42,058,344
1832,.....	299,510,739	77,011,007	104,042,405	42,260,213
1833,.....	319,879,167	96,601,946	114,129,561	52,365,626
1834,.....	350,011,629	109,660,506	123,249,280	63,299,231
1835,.....	402,482,307	124,394,293	143,732,425	74,991,278
1836,.....	539,756,874	127,639,486	233,742,303	75,758,617
1837,.....	499,313,276	122,144,173	196,450,109	67,297,241
1838,.....	502,864,006	124,660,778	194,543,359	69,609,582
1839,.....	519,058,782	131,602,988	196,778,434	70,010,796
1840,.....	517,723,170	121,449,830	187,121,464	65,721,699
1841,.....	531,987,886	123,311,644	186,347,246	65,430,456
1842,.....	504,254,026	116,595,233	176,512,342	61,294,559

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**STEAMBOAT AND RAILROAD STATISTICS.****STEAM NAVIGATION OF THE HUDSON RIVER.****THE PEOPLE'S LINE—NIGHT BOATS.**

THE progress of steam navigation since the launching of the *Clermont*, of *Fulton*, the first boat that ploughed the waters of the *Hudson*, is truly astonishing. The speed has been increased from five to eighteen miles an hour. To the State of *New York*, with one side resting on the sea and the other upon the great lakes—with *Niagara* thundering upon its western boundary, and its eastern seacoast serenaded by the roar of the ocean—this empire, within itself combining agricultural and commercial resources in a remarkable degree, with a population, for the most part, sprung from the *New England* hive, moulded, in due proportions, with other elements—a population distinguished for its enterprise, liberality, and perseverance;—to *New York*, holding in her right hand the trident of the waters, and in the left the plough of the western prairies, belongs the fitting credit of first setting afloat this power—the crowning glory of its commercial victories.

In a former number of this Magazine we gave a description of the *Troy and Empire*, of the day line between *New York*, *Albany*, and *Troy*; we now proceed to lay before our readers a brief account of the steamers composing the *People's* (night) Line.

The *People's* Line consists of the steamboats *Knickerbocker*, *South America*, *Rochester*, *North America*, and *Utica*, forming two daily evening lines between *New York* and *Albany*; one at 5 o'clock P. M., stopping at the intermediate landings, and the other at 7 P. M., which proceeds direct, without landing.

The *Rochester*, Captain *A. Houghton*, is two hundred and seventy-five feet long, and twenty-five feet beam. She has in her main cabins below three hundred berths, fifty in the ladies' saloon on the main deck, which is eighty feet in length, and fifty-two in a suite of twenty-six state-rooms on the upper deck, which, together with two large rooms on the guards, afford sleeping accommodations for about four hundred and fifty persons.

The *South America*, Captain *L. W. Brainard*, is two hundred and seventy-five feet long, twenty-seven feet wide, nine feet six inches deep, and measures six hundred and forty tons. She has two hundred berths in the gentlemen's cabin, forty-eight in the ladies' saloon, which is eighty-one feet in length on the main deck aft, and fifty-two in twenty-two splendid state-rooms, which enclose a fine sitting-room on the upper deck.

The *North America*, Captain *M. H. Truesdell*, is two hundred and fifty feet long, twenty-six feet beam, and nine feet depth of hold. She has accommodations in her cabins and state-rooms for about three hundred persons.

The steamboat *Utica* is used as a spare boat, and, in the winter season, for hard service, has rendered herself celebrated for her formidable encounters with the ice. She is two hundred feet in length, and twenty-three in breadth, and can accommodate about three hundred persons with berths.

The proprietors of this line have spared neither pains nor expense in the construction and fitting out of these boats. They have adopted all the new improvements which have been proved to lessen the risk of accident, or add to the comfort and convenience of passengers. *Daniel Drew* and *Isaac Newton, Esqs.*, the principal owners, have, with the assistance of Messrs. *Smith and Dimon*, ship builders, *N. G. Minor*, joiner, *J. E. Coffee*, boiler maker, *Hogg and Delamater*, engine builders, and other mechanics, determined to add to their already excellent line a steamboat which, in size, extent of ac-

commodation, speed, elegance and beauty of finish, will equal, if not surpass, any on the navigable waters of the world. The Knickerbocker is three hundred and twenty-five feet long, thirty-two feet wide, nine feet nine inches depth of hold, and will measure one thousand and forty-two tons; a greater amount of tonnage than any other American steam vessel. Her engine was built at the Phoenix foundry. The cylinder is sixty-five inches in diameter, and ten feet stroke. The main water-wheel shafts are of wrought iron, forged at Cold Spring, New York, are sixteen inches in diameter, and weigh thirty-one thousand seven hundred and sixty pounds. The cut-off is the one invented by James Cunningham, Esq. The boilers are intended for burning anthracite coal, aided by a blast from blowers, driven by two small engines. The water-wheels are thirty-two feet in diameter, and eleven feet face.

The hull is built of the best materials, well fastened, and unusually strong, in order that she may run, if necessary, on other waters than the Hudson. The main cabins below are three hundred feet in length, and are furnished with three hundred berths, sixty of which are in state-rooms. The ladies' saloon is ninety feet long, twenty-nine feet wide, and has sixty-four berths, twenty-four of which are in twelve state-rooms. On the upper deck there are fifty-six state-rooms, extending on the sides of the boat from the pilot's wheel to the promenade deck, between which is a large saloon, intended for a ladies and gentlemen's sitting-room. Her state-rooms number, altogether, one hundred and three, twelve of which are in the ladies' cabin, thirty in the dining cabin below, fifty-six on the upper deck, and five on the main deck. She is to be commanded by A. P. St. John, long and favorably known as captain of the Rochester. She will be completed by the 1st of August.

#### BOSTON AND WORCESTER RAILROAD.

The report of the directors of the Boston and Worcester railroad, presented at the late annual meeting of the stockholders, announces the near completion of the second track of that road, and of the ample buildings for the accommodation of the increased freight and travel that may be anticipated at the several stations. The whole expenditure, to the date of the report, was \$2,885,374 45, to meet which a capital had been already paid in of \$2,700,000; and this amount will probably be increased by the creation of 2,000 additional shares, making a capital of \$2,900,000. Over \$500,000, in addition to the amount given by the South Cove corporation, have been expended for real estate, tools, and fixed machinery in Boston, including about ten acres of land. About an equal amount has been expended for land and buildings out of Boston—land for the track, engines, and cars; and \$1,680,000 for the road itself, including the two tracks, the branches, sidings, bank walls, bridges, and every expense immediately connected with the road itself.

#### PHILADELPHIA, WILMINGTON, AND BALTIMORE RAILROAD.

The Fifth Annual Report of the Philadelphia, Wilmington, and Baltimore Railroad Company, embraces some interesting statements. The gross receipts of the road for 1842, were \$386,874; receipts on the Newcastle and Frenchtown Railroad for the same period, \$82,983; joint gross receipts, \$469,857. The largest receipts for passengers, \$38,370, were in the month of May; the largest receipts for freight, \$7,293, were in the month of February. The largest gross receipts, in 1841, were \$603,868, being an increase of \$134,010 over 1842. Expenses in 1841, \$342,940; expenses in 1842, \$239,965. Decrease in net revenue in 1842, \$31,080. The saving in expense for the last year is a very important matter, and speaks well for the management of the road.

## STATISTICS OF POPULATION.

## IRISH CENSUS FOR 1841.

THE Dublin Mercantile Advertiser contains the following curious and interesting statement:—The census, which was simultaneously taken in every parish in Ireland on a given day in 1841, and which has occupied a considerable staff in its preparation for publication, will soon be printed and laid before Parliament. A variety of curious and interesting details will be supplied for the first time. The exact amount of the population, rated according to sex and age—and the diseases which are most prevalent and fatal—the number of insane persons under restraint, with other statistical details, will, we understand, be given with a surprising degree of accuracy. The following is a return of the population:—

	Males.		Females.
Leinster,.....	963,747	Leinster,.....	1,009,984
Munster,.....	1,186,190	Munster,.....	1,209,971
Connaught,.....	707,884	Connaught,.....	711,072
Ulster,.....	1,161,846	Ulster,.....	1,224,579
Total males,.....	4,019,667	Total,.....	3,155,606
Total population,.....	8,175,273		
In 1821, the population was.....	6,801,827		
1831 " " .....	7,767,401		
1841 " " .....	8,175,273		
Increase between 1821 and 1831,.....	965,547		
" " 1831 " 1841,.....	407,872		

From this it appears that the increase during the ten years up to 1841, was 557,702 less than it had been in ten years preceding. This extremely reduced rate of increase is a very remarkable and extraordinary fact. It is evident that, during the last ten years, there has been a very decided check to the progress of population in Ireland:

The increase in England, during the ten years from 1831 to 1841, was 2,004,794, which was more than one-seventh upon the population of 1831.

The increase in Ireland, during the same ten years, was 407,872, which was little more than one-twentieth of the population of 1831.

The increase in England has been in the ratio of nearly 3 to 1, as compared with Ireland. This is the first time that Ireland has shown a less degree of increase than England.

## CENSUS OF UPPER CANADA.

The late census of Upper Canada gives the population as 506,655, of which number the natal country of—

40,684 is England.	13,969 is Canada, of French origin.
78,255 is Ireland.	6,681 is the Continent of Europe.
39,781 is Scotland.	32,838 is the United States.
247,665 is Canada, of British origin.	7,595 are foreigners, not naturalized.

## COMMERCIAL STATISTICS.

## EXPORTS OF INDIAN CORN AND CORN MEAL.

*A statement of the quantity of Indian corn and meal exported from the United States from 1791 to 1841, inclusive; also, the value of the same, from 1803 to 1841.*

Years.	Corn. Bushels.	Meal. Barrels.	Value. Dollars.	Years.	Corn. Bushels.	Meal. Barrels.	Value. Dollars.
1791,	1,713,241	351,695	.....	1817,	387,454	106,763	1,328,522
1792,	1,964,973	263,405	.....	1818,	1,075,190	120,029	2,335,405
1793,	1,233,768	189,715	.....	1819,	1,086,762	135,271	1,423,792
1794,	1,505,977	241,570	.....	1820,	533,741	146,316	843,025
1795,	1,935,345	512,445	.....	1821,	607,277	131,669	606,279
1796,	1,173,552	540,286	.....	1822,	509,098	148,228	900,656
1797,	804,922	254,799	.....	1823,	749,034	141,501	930,485
1798,	1,218,231	211,694	.....	1824,	779,297	152,723	736,340
1799,	1,200,492	231,226	.....	1825,	869,644	187,225	878,073
1800,	1,694,327	338,108	.....	1826,	505,381	158,652	1,007,321
1801,	1,768,162	919,355	.....	1827,	978,664	131,041	1,022,464
1802,	1,633,283	266,816	.....	1828,	70,492	174,639	822,858
1803,	2,079,608	133,606	2,025,000	1829,	897,656	173,775	974,535
1804,	1,944,873	111,327	2,500,000	1830,	444,107	145,301	597,119
1805,	861,501	116,131	1,442,000	1831,	571,312	207,604	992,051
1806,	1,064,263	108,342	1,286,000	1832,	451,230	146,710	758,775
1807,	1,018,721	136,460	987,000	1833,	437,174	146,678	871,814
1808,	249,533	30,818	298,000	1834,	303,449	149,609	695,483
1809,	522,047	57,260	547,000	1835,	755,781	166,782	1,217,665
1810,	1,054,252	86,744	1,138,000	1836,	124,791	140,917	725,262
1811,	2,790,850	147,426	2,896,000	1837,	151,276	159,435	1,011,634
1812,	2,039,999	90,810	1,939,000	1838,	172,321	171,843	864,391
1813,	1,486,970	58,521	1,838,000	1839,	162,306	165,672	799,516
1814,	61,284	26,438	170,000	1840,	574,279	206,063	1,043,516
1815,	830,516	72,634	1,140,000	1841,	535,727	232,284	995,411
1816,	1,077,614	89,119	1,646,000				

## CONSUMPTION OF TOBACCO IN ENGLAND.

We have received, fresh from the London press, (1843,) another volume of "The Progress of the British Nation in its various Social and Economical Relations, from the beginning of the nineteenth century to the present time. By G. R. Porter, Esq., F. R. S." The present volume relates to "Consumption, Accumulation, Moral Progress, Colonial and Foreign Dependencies." We shall, from time to time, lay before our readers the most important and interesting portions of it. We extract the following remarks and tables, all that relate to the consumption of tobacco in Great Britain, Ireland, and the United Kingdom at different periods, from the commencement of the nineteenth century to the present period (1841) inclusive.

The quantity of this plant upon which consumption duty is paid is considerably less at the present time, taking the kingdom throughout and making allowance for the increased population, than it was at the beginning of the present century. This fact is clearly attributable to the increase made in the rate of duty. In great towns and among the easy classes, and especially among our young men whose expenditure is least likely to be carefully regulated as regards minor luxuries, the smoking of tobacco is probably much greater now than it has been at any earlier period. The falling off in the consumption is principally experienced in Ireland, where the smoking of tobacco has long

been a chief luxury among the working classes, and where, considering the few comforts that usually fall to their lot, its diminution betokens a great degree of privation. Contrasting 1839 with 1801, it will be seen that the average use of tobacco in Ireland is only one-half what it was at the beginning of the century, and although the rate of duty is now about three times what it was in 1801, the contribution per head to the revenue has advanced only 75 per cent. In Great Britain, where the condition of the people generally has been more satisfactory than in Ireland, the consumption per head is now about equal to what it was at the beginning of the century, and the contribution to the revenue has consequently been more in agreement with the increased rate of the duty.

## GREAT BRITAIN.

Years.	Pounds weight consumed. <i>lbs.</i>	Duty per pound. <i>s. d.</i>	Amount of duty. <i>£</i>	Aver. yearly consumption. <i>ozs.</i>	Aver. contribution to the revenue. <i>s. d.</i>
1801,.....	10,514,998	1 7 6.20	923,855	15.37	1 8½
1811,.....	14,923,243	2 2 13.20	1,710,848	18.95	2 8½
1821,.....	12,983,198	4 0	2,600,415	14.43	3 7½
1831,.....	15,350,018	3 0	2,338,107	14.84	2 9½
1841,.....	16,830,593	.....	2,716,217	14.52	2 11½

It is made evident by these figures that the duty of 4*s.* per lb. was excessive. The advance to that rate from 2*s.* 2*d.* caused a diminished consumption to the extent of one-fourth; and the revenue per head, which, had the consumption not been lessened, would have been 4*s.* 10½*d.*, amounted to only 3*s.* 7½*d.*

## IRELAND.

Years.	Pounds weight consumed. <i>lbs.</i>	Duty per pound. <i>s. d.</i>	Amount of duty. <i>£</i>	Aver. yearly consumption. <i>ozs.</i>	Aver. contribution to the revenue. <i>s. d.</i>
1801,.....	6,389,754	1 0 7.10	285,482	18.95	1 0½
1811,.....	6,453,024	1 7	552,082	17.35	1 10½
1821,.....	2,614,954	3 0	528,168	6.15	1 6½
1831,.....	4,183,823	3 0	626,485	8.61	1 7½
1841,.....	5,478,767	3 0	863,946	10.71	2 0

## UNITED KINGDOM.

Years.	Pounds weight consumed. <i>lbs.</i>	Duty per pound. <i>s. d.</i>	Amount of duty. <i>£</i>	Aver. yearly consumption. <i>ozs.</i>	Aver. contribution to the revenue. <i>s. d.</i>
1801,.....	16,904,752	.....	1,209,337	16.05	1 5½
1811,.....	21,376,267	.....	2,262,930	18.44	2 5½
1821,.....	15,598,152	.....	3,122,563	11.77	2 11½
1831,.....	19,533,841	.....	2,964,930	12.85	2 5½
1841,.....	22,309,360	.....	3,580,164	13.36	2 8

One great evil that attends upon exorbitant taxation on this article of consumption, is the encouragement that it gives to smuggling. The amount of the duty is so vastly out of proportion to its value, that the contraband dealer can afford to lose several ventures if he can succeed in safely disposing of one.

The high rates of duty charged on tobacco in various European countries have been felt as a grievance by some of the states of the American Union, and threats have for some time been used, that unless an alteration be made in those rates, retaliatory measures will be taken, and heavy duties placed upon some of the staple manufactures of Europe when imported into the United States. This very ineffectual, but by no means uncommon method of meeting the case, has very recently been adopted by the American congress. The result of the new tariff of the United States will, in all probability, be to limit the sales as well as the purchases of America, and instead of causing an increased vent for tobacco, to diminish it by lessening the means which foreigners have for buying.

## EXPORTS OF TOBACCO FROM THE UNITED STATES.

*A statement of the quantity of Tobacco exported from the United States in each year from 1791 to 1841, and of the value of the same from 1802 to 1841, inclusive, compiled from official documents.*

Years.	Hogsheads. Number.	Value. Dollars.	Years.	Hogsheads. Number.	Value. Dollars.
1791,.....	101,272	.....	1817,.....	62,365	9,511,529
1792,.....	112,428	.....	1818,.....	84,337	10,241,304
1793,.....	59,947	.....	1819,.....	69,427	8,874,167
1794,.....	76,826	.....	1820,.....	83,940	8,118,188
1795,.....	61,050	.....	1821,.....	66,858	5,798,045
1796,.....	69,018	.....	1822,.....	83,169	6,380,020
1797,.....	58,167	.....	1823,.....	99,009	6,437,627
1798,.....	68,567	.....	1824,.....	77,883	5,059,355
1799,.....	96,070	.....	1825,.....	75,984	6,287,976
1800,.....	78,680	.....	1826,.....	64,098	5,347,208
1801,.....	103,758	.....	1827,.....	100,025	6,816,146
1802,.....	77,721	6,220,000	1828,.....	96,278	5,480,707
1803,.....	86,291	6,209,000	1829,.....	77,131	5,185,370
1804,.....	83,343	6,000,000	1830,.....	83,810	5,833,112
1805,.....	71,252	6,341,000	1831,.....	86,718	4,892,388
1806,.....	83,186	6,572,000	1832,.....	106,806	5,999,769
1807,.....	62,186	5,476,000	1833,.....	83,153	5,755,968
1808,.....	9,576	26,000	1834,.....	87,979	6,595,308
1809,.....	53,921	3,774,000	1835,.....	94,353	8,250,577
1810,.....	84,134	5,048,000	1836,.....	109,442	10,058,640
1811,.....	35,828	2,150,000	1837,.....	100,232	5,795,647
1812,.....	26,094	1,514,000	1838,.....	100,593	7,392,029
1813,.....	5,314	319,000	1839,.....	78,995	9,832,943
1814,.....	3,125	232,000	1840,.....	119,484	9,883,957
1815,.....	88,337	8,235,000	1841,.....	147,828	12,576,703
1816,.....	69,241	12,809,000			

## BALTIMORE FLOUR TRADE.

The miller's year, as we learn from Lyford's Commercial Chronicle, commences with July, and ends with June. The following is the amount of flour inspected in the city of Baltimore during the last three years, ending June of each year, viz:—

	Barrels.	Half Bbls.
1842 to 1843—1st quarter ending September 30,.....	150,893	9,480
“ 2d “ “ December 31,.....	186,502	8,595
“ 3d “ “ March 31,.....	111,765	3,185
“ 4th “ “ June 30,.....	102,473	7,440
Total,.....	551,633	28,700
1841 to 1842—1st quarter ending September 30,.....	144,115	8,810
“ 2d “ “ December 31,.....	179,217	8,586
“ 3d “ “ March 31,.....	111,441	4,412
“ 4th “ “ June 30,.....	99,965	4,475
Total,.....	534,738	26,283
1840 to 1841—1st quarter ending September 30,.....	136,625	8,075
“ 2d “ “ December 31,.....	198,530	9,907
“ 3d “ “ March 31,.....	166,264	6,474
“ 4th “ “ June 30,.....	123,420	7,846
Total,.....	624,839	32,302

## TRADE OF BUFFALO.

The Buffalo Commercial Advertiser, of July 1st, 1843, gives the subjoined list of arrivals, &c., with the aggregate of principal articles landed at that port from the commencement of lake navigation to 1st July, for three seasons:—

## IMPORTS AT THIS PORT TO FIRST JULY.

Articles.	1841.	1842.	1843.
Flour,.....bbls.	284,188	255,034	322,434
Wheat,.....bush.	328,447	397,674	428,247
Corn,.....	34,317	136,264	32,700
Oats,.....	*	116,806	none.
Ashes,.....casks	3,241	7,179	14,587
Whiskey,.....	8,311	7,628	4,049
Tobacco,.....	unknown	693	1,192
Hams and bacon,.....	3,548	1,272	3,244
Pork,.....bbls.	59,423	47,872	34,178
Seed,.....	2,757	3,682	3,252
Fish,.....	1,232	304	660
Butter and lard,.....kegs	20,536	33,304	28,942
Hides,.....No.	11,298	13,001	10,640
Lead,.....pigs	unknown	8,014	8,130
Brooms,.....dozens	3,181	1,229	877
Staves,.....	2,861,000	2,320,000	457,000

Below will also be found the date of commencing lake business, the number of arrivals, the quantity of wheat and flour landed up to the 1st July, with the prices paid at that period for those two articles, for five seasons:—

Lake open—	Arrivals.	Wheat. Bushels.	Value.	Flour. Barrels.	Value.
1843, May 6,.....	670	428,247	\$1 12	322,434	\$5 12
1842, March 7,.....	812	397,674	1 10	255,034	5 12
1841, April 14,.....	698	328,447	1 10	284,188	4 90
1840, April 24,.....	546	261,262	75	218,206	3 70
1839, April 11,.....	446	349,688	1 12	142,321	5 63

This exhibit shows that although the arrivals here have been one hundred and forty-two less than in 1842, the aggregate of wheat landed is 30,572 bushels greater, while the excess of flour received is 67,400 barrels above the same season; and so in proportion to the three preceding years. The universal cry among the dealers before navigation commenced, was—"The receipts will be short; the grain is not in the country to come forth." How fallacious!

## MICHIGAN.

## Exports from the Port of Detroit in 1842.

Flour,.....barrels	180,210	Whiskey & High Wines, casks.	383
Pork,....."	19,461	W. I. & Stand. Staves, M....	773½
Fish,....."	11,894	Hams,.....pounds	108,155
Lard,....."	107	Shoulders,....."	35,500
Butter,....."	609	Wool,....."	33,464
Wheat,.....bush'ls	98,923	Lumber,.....feet...	3,000
Corn,....."	100	Michigan Glass,.....boxes	1,860
Pot Ashes,.....tons...	912½	Merchandise,....."	130
Grass & Flax Seed, tes. & bbls.	767	Brooms,.....dozen	362

Amounting, in value, to..... \$1,108,496 81

The value of exports from this district to Canada amounted, during the year, to \$323,943 41.

\* Included in the corn.

## EXPORTS OF DOMESTIC MANUFACTURES OF COTTON.

The following statement, showing the annual amount of the exports of domestic manufactures of cotton to each of the different countries to which they were chiefly sent from the United States in each year, from 1826 to 1842, was compiled from the annual reports of the Secretary of the Treasury on commerce and navigation by a correspondent of the United States Gazette:—

## MEXICO

Has been a regular, and, for several years, a large customer, as well for colored as for white goods. Of the former, in 1826 she took \$20,464, in 1835 \$291,780; since then there has been a falling off in the amount, so that, in 1841, it was only \$52,079. Of white goods she received, in 1826, \$309,807; in 1835, \$1,054,608; which has since gradually declined to \$61,583 in 1841, owing, probably, to the perturbed state of that country.

Year.	Colored.	White.	Year.	Colored.	White.
1826.....	\$20,464	\$309,807	1834.....	\$91,249	\$417,502
1827.....	18,397	311,492	1835.....	291,780	1,054,608
1828.....	21,897	63,106	1836.....	2,818	789,831
1829.....	48,704	116,627	1837.....	223,015	94,920
1830.....	32,832	465,331	1838.....	99,109	371,023
1831.....	79,737	342,837	1839.....	100,617	170,523
1832.....	29,200	165,701	1840.....	86,883	155,220
1833.....	235,481	578,057	1841.....	52,079	61,583

## THE CENTRAL REPUBLIC

Has likewise regularly received from us since 1826, but to a comparatively small extent.

Year.	Colored.	White.	Year.	Colored.	White.
1826.....	\$1,254	\$22,061	1834.....	.....	\$28,123
1827.....	738	41,887	1835.....	\$2,724	18,134
1828.....	4,328	17,070	1836.....	20,459	21,321
1829.....	6,046	23,616	1837.....	5,931	51,178
1830.....	540	35,468	1838.....	7,788	48,938
1831.....	200	14,849	1839.....	1,414	36,470
1832.....	3,151	27,240	1840.....	13,677	68,093
1833.....	14,490	103,323	1841.....	5,539	46,314

## TEXAS,

Considering the unsettled state of the country since its independence, has formed a considerable outlet for our manufactures, and, when established, will no doubt afford a permanent and extensive market. The first exports appear to have been made in 1837.

Year.	Colored.	White.	Year.	Colored.	White.
1837.....	\$9,593	\$50,051	1840.....	\$86,300	\$67,488
1838.....	30,711	29,553	1841.....	54,393	43,030
1839.....	95,857	138,603			

## HONDURAS

Has taken, nearly every year, both white and colored goods, and the export is increasing.

Year.	Colored.	White.	Year.	Colored.	White.
1827.....	\$450	\$476	1836.....	\$507	\$3,270
1828.....	.....	250	1837.....	1,742	5,292
1829.....	.....	955	1838.....	.....	13,754
1832.....	5,454	1,400	1839.....	607	25,061
1833.....	1,699	9,221	1840.....	1,246	25,044
1834.....	.....	2,742	1841.....	.....	33,173
1835.....	944	11,102			

## CHILI

Has uniformly been our largest customer, especially for white goods, receiving at the same time, to some extent, colored goods also.

Year.	Colored.	White.	Year.	Colored.	White.
1826.....	.....	\$37,403	1829.....	\$52,090	\$341,695
1827.....	1,894	271,033	1830.....	5,847	90,077
1828.....	15,747	503,989	1831.....	4,456	306,336

## CHILI—Continued.

Year.	Colored.	White.	Year.	Colored.	White.
1832,.....	\$275	\$278,146	1837,.....	\$57,865	\$660,717
1833,.....	10,913	346,651	1838,.....	4,006	634,201
1834,.....	7,029	316,548	1839,.....	20,989	914,604
1835,.....	5,828	249,310	1840,.....	30,687	827,931
1836,.....	123,771	273,359	1841,.....	12,870	470,419

## BRAZIL

Furnishes the next largest market for both white and colored goods.

Year.	Colored.	White.	Year.	Colored.	White.
1826,.....	\$1,559	\$215,287	1834,.....	\$16,365	\$206,824
1827,.....	2,736	63,880	1835,.....	20,827	246,089
1828,.....	2,544	109,853	1836,.....	12,161	187,967
1829,.....	5,904	172,231	1837,.....	86,769	217,095
1830,.....	554	54,234	1838,.....	32,887	499,847
1831,.....	1,388	62,541	1839,.....	61,017	231,242
1832,.....	13,244	166,023	1840,.....	79,533	391,170
1833,.....	16,545	207,151	1841,.....	164,031	424,701

## THE CISPLATINE REPUBLIC

Commenced receiving our manufactures in 1837 to a small extent.

Year.	Colored.	White.	Year.	Colored.	White.
1837,.....	\$1,172	\$344	1840,.....	\$6,494	\$26,165
1838,.....	3,154	16,190	1841,.....	6,548	12,752
1839,.....	10,866	11,294			

## BUENOS AYRES.

Till 1828, and during the remainder of the period, the Argentine Republic received regularly of cotton goods from the United States.

Year.	Colored.	White.	Year.	Colored.	White.
1826,.....	\$2,486	\$42,591	1834,.....	\$4,824	\$258,357
1827,.....	370	5,531	1835,.....	.....	101,488
1828,.....	136	17,967	1836,.....	13,184	83,423
1829,.....	4,081	143,570	1837,.....	2,803	50,657
1830,.....	1,265	43,509	1838,.....	5,496	98,596
1831,.....	30	32,922	1839,.....	2,105	45,139
1832,.....	38,116	127,857	1840,.....	864	92,405
1833,.....	12,419	138,466	1841,.....	21,622	131,342

## PERU,

From 1820 to 1832, was a regular customer, omitting 1831. No further exports appear to have been made till 1837 and 1838, since when they have ceased.

Year.	Colored.	White.	Years.	Colored.	White.
1826,.....	\$11,700	\$29,706	1830,.....	.....	\$2,481
1827,.....	257	62,324	1832,.....	.....	2,223
1828,.....	5,674	40,290	1837,.....	\$32,466	15,104
1829,.....	1,612	41,556	1838,.....	.....	97,713

## COLOMBIA

Has been a small but regular customer from 1826 to 1838, when Venezuela and New Grenada took her place.

Year.	Colored.	White.	Year.	Colored.	White.
1826,.....	\$3,230	\$14,411	1833,.....	\$1,852	\$33,343
1827,.....	2,598	14,284	1834,.....	15,914	41,422
1828,.....	1,803	5,138	1835,.....	9,426	44,209
1829,.....	358	4,555	1836,.....	12,217	50,035
1830,.....	295	11,693	1837,.....	27,739	70,418
1831,.....	980	14,623	1838,.....	11,543	43,715
1832,.....	3,057	20,378			

Venezuela in 1839 took of colored goods, \$2,003; 1840, \$12,569; 1841, \$3,988; and of white goods in 1838, \$16,945; 1839, \$49,549; 1840, \$80,621; 1841, \$26,083.

New Grenada in 1839 took all white goods, \$2,858; 1840, \$3,527; 1841, \$1,794.

## SOUTH AMERICA, GENERALLY.

Under this head, in addition to the foregoing, there were exported in 1827, \$2,339; in 1829, \$967; in 1834, \$90; in 1839, \$12,276; in 1840, \$58,810; and in 1841, \$37,760, all white goods; and in 1840, \$766, and in 1841, \$21,051 of colored goods.

## CHINA

Does not now, for the first time, receive our cotton manufactures, having, since 1826, been a customer to a considerable amount, viz:—

Year.	Colored.	White.	Year.	Colored.	White.
1826,.....	\$154	\$14,776	1834,.....	.....	\$146,881
1827,.....	.....	9,388	1835,.....	\$2,552	170,175
1828,.....	.....	14,981	1836,.....	15,351	70,394
1829,.....	.....	25,913	1837,.....	11,997	189,255
1830,.....	.....	52,080	1838,.....	11,280	507,560
1831,.....	.....	49,256	1839,.....	6,360	255,975
1832,.....	.....	87,480	1840,.....	.....	361,995
1833,.....	64,881	127,813	1841,.....	.....	173,755

## TURKEY, LEVANT, AND EGYPT,

With the exception of \$417 in 1828, and \$172 in 1829, have received all in white cottons.

Year.	White.	Year.	White.
1826,.....	\$29,058	1834,.....	\$30,433
1827,.....	46,321	1835,.....	14,969
1828,.....	3,880	1836,.....	51,240
1829,.....	4,004	1837,.....	21,720
1830,.....	29,117	1838,.....	111,947
1831,.....	11,599	1839,.....	48,996
1832,.....	32,961	1840,.....	63,749
1833,.....	70,902	1841,.....	81,780

## NORTHWEST COAST.

Year.	Colored.	White.	Year.	Colored.	White.
1826,.....	\$300	\$9,951	1832,.....	.....	\$11,226
1827,.....	67	14,364	1833,.....	.....	8,239
1828,.....	1,025	17,488	1834,.....	\$1,130	12,269
1829,.....	.....	1,075	1835,.....	.....	4,809
1830,.....	396	7,188	1836,.....	6,104	5,900
1831,.....	.....	5,113	1840,.....	24	59

## SOUTH SEAS,

Commenced in 1826, and have furnished a regular market.

Year.	Colored.	White.	Year.	Colored.	White.
1826,.....	\$433	\$3,859	1835,.....	.....	\$4,185
1828,.....	1,180	9,403	1836,.....	.....	24,764
1829,.....	1,824	2,064	1837,.....	.....	8,848
1830,.....	1,194	600	1838,.....	\$4,060	11,590
1831,.....	.....	371	1839,.....	5,359	37,739
1833,.....	4,677	7,455	1840,.....	6,371	49,174
1834,.....	96	3,911			

## SANDWICH ISLANDS.

Year.	Colored.	White.	Year.	Colored.	White.
1837,.....	.....	\$15,227	1839,.....	\$37,739	\$5,350
1838,.....	\$11,590	4,060	1840,.....	49,174	6,371

In the report of 1841, these two are united—\$45,373 worth of colored, and \$60,128 worth of white goods.

## AUSTRALIA,

In 1838, received \$910 worth of cotton goods; and in 1840, \$3,590.

## MANILLA AND PHILIPPINE ISLANDS,

Have been regular customers since 1828; taking altogether of white goods, excepting \$362 worth of colored in 1829.

Year.	White.	Year.	White.
1828,.....	\$534	1835,.....	\$35,471
1829,.....	190	1836,.....	5,030
1830,.....	25,024	1838,.....	79,531
1831,.....	8,571	1839,.....	95,416
1832,.....	2,680	1840,.....	80,271
1834,.....	3,662	1841,.....	33,050

## ASIA, GENERALLY.

Besides the preceding, there have been regular exports to other parts of Asia, under this general head.

Year.	Colored.	White.	Year.	Colored.	White.
1826,.....	.....	\$1,277	1834,.....	\$166	\$9,723
1827,.....	.....	3,100	1835,.....	1,170	33,668
1828,.....	.....	583	1836,.....	.....	9,316
1829,.....	.....	5,233	1837,.....	.....	58,931
1830,.....	.....	10,846	1838,.....	376	82,427
1831,.....	.....	7,316	1839,.....	58,013	67,126
1832,.....	.....	18,334	1840,.....	21,231	80,597
1833,.....	\$278	12,678	1841,.....	2,029	183,577

## DUTCH EAST INDIES.

The export commenced in 1828. From that year to 1833, none but white goods; for five subsequent years, a portion of colored; since then, all white.

Year.	Colored.	White.	Year.	Colored.	White.
1828,.....	.....	\$2,577	1835,.....	\$283	\$124,602
1829,.....	.....	5,777	1836,.....	.....	134,914
1830,.....	.....	4,110	1837,.....	1,911	240,699
1831,.....	.....	3,500	1838,.....	4,000	129,350
1832,.....	.....	6,396	1839,.....	.....	65,618
1833,.....	\$5,339	26,285	1840,.....	.....	90,241
1834,.....	2,072	52,896	1841,.....	.....	82,789

## DUTCH WEST INDIES,

Have likewise been small customers for several years.

Year.	Colored.	White.	Year.	Colored.	White.
1826,.....	.....	\$1,504	1835,.....	\$433	\$842
1827,.....	\$939	.....	1836,.....	1,050	262
1828,.....	176	706	1837,.....	2,978	6,091
1831,.....	171	.....	1838,.....	.....	6,704
1832,.....	.....	854	1839,.....	.....	5,989
1833,.....	15	1,422	1840,.....	960	16,637
1834,.....	428	772	1841,.....	2,000	3,373

## HOLLAND,

In 1832, took \$900, and in 1837, \$5,027 worth of white goods.

## HANSE TOWNS OF GERMANY,

In 1826, took \$315 worth of white goods; in 1832, \$72; in 1834, \$820; in 1839, \$20; in 1840, \$2,150; in 1841, \$1,412; and in 1837, \$288 worth of colored goods.

## BELGIUM,

In 1840, took \$341, and in 1841, \$10,894 worth of cotton goods.

## FRENCH WEST INDIES,

Have constantly received a small amount, chiefly white goods.

Year.	White.	Year.	White.
1826,.....	\$657	1831,.....	\$436
1827,.....	1,004	1832,.....	505
1828,.....	320	1833,.....	1,968
1829,.....	1,807	1834,.....	818
1830,.....	418	1835,.....	2,504

## FRENCH WEST INDIES—Continued.

Year.	White.	Year.	White.
1836,.....	\$6,345	1839,.....	\$4,693
1837,.....	3,395	1840,.....	5,193
1838,.....	5,558	1841,.....	3,536

and in 1826, \$20 worth of colored goods; 1827, \$47; 1833, \$472; 1834, \$144; 1840, \$158; 1841, \$68.

## FRANCE ON THE ATLANTIC

Received, in 1832, \$100, and in 1838, \$310 worth of white goods. Her African settlements took, in 1830, \$266 worth; and her ports on the Mediterranean, in 1830, received \$1,292; 1833, \$450; 1835, \$931.

## RUSSIA

Received, in 1830, \$52, and in 1839, \$12,131 worth of white goods.

## ENGLAND, AND THE DEPENDENCIES OF GREAT BRITAIN.

To England, herself, the amount is very small, and probably was only designed to exhibit samples of our different manufactures. In 1826, it was only \$664; in 1829, \$450, of white goods. In 1828, the first colored goods were sent, amounting only to \$273; in 1830, \$1,852; 1832, \$2,289; 1833, \$1,861; 1834, \$4,566, all white goods. In 1835, \$573 worth of colored; in 1836, \$2,233 worth of white, and \$8,580 worth of colored; and in 1837, \$11,899 of colored, which appears to be the last export up to 1841. Several of her colonies have been regular customers, to some extent.

## BRITISH EAST INDIES.

In 1827, the export commenced, and has been continued ever since, increasing, till, instead of deriving, as formerly, from this quarter, our principal supply of white goods, we received not a piece from thence in 1840 and 1841; but in each of those years furnished them with over \$150,000 worth of our own manufacture.

Year.	White.	Year.	White.
1827,.....	\$1,200	1835,.....	\$27,300
1828,.....	1,957	1836,.....	102,746
1829,.....	9,553	1837,.....	52,017
1830,.....	16,358	1838,.....	134,848
1831,.....	29,016	1839,.....	42,862
1832,.....	26,073	1840,.....	153,484
1833,.....	36,013	1841,.....	157,560
1834,.....	89,454		

In 1832, \$87 worth of colored goods were exported to the East Indies; in 1838, \$5,914; and in 1839, \$442.

## ST. HELENA.

In 1833, \$2,426 worth of colored, and \$1,846 worth of white goods, were exported to this island; and in 1834, \$1,407 worth of colored, and \$7,108 worth of white—none since.

## CAPE OF GOOD HOPE

Received from us, in 1826, \$584 worth of white goods; in 1833, \$865; in 1835, \$2,015; in 1836, \$1,023; and in 1838, \$552. Here the exportation ceased.

## GIBRALTAR.

There have annually, since 1826, been clearances of our manufactures for this port, chiefly white goods.

Year.	White.	Year.	White.
1826,.....	\$6,095	1834,.....	\$3,638
1827,.....	22,127	1835,.....	4,550
1828,.....	22,736	1836,.....	19,709
1829,.....	2,914	1837,.....	3,392
1830,.....	40,936	1838,.....	9,986
1831,.....	7,414	1839,.....	6,071
1832,.....	962	1840,.....	1,763
1833,.....	1,846		

In 1828, \$446 worth of colored goods were exported; in 1830, \$280; in 1834, \$2,153; and in 1839, \$933.

## MALTA.

Prior to 1834, Italy was united with Malta. In that year she received \$2,041 worth of white goods; in 1835, \$10,475; in 1837, \$11,695; in 1838, \$5,120; in 1839, \$13,407; and in the same year \$383 worth of colored goods.

## BRITISH WEST INDIES.

In 1826, \$11 worth of colored, and \$1,122 of white goods, were exported. From that year to 1831, there was no further export. Since then, it has amounted annually to more or less.

Year.	Colored.	White.	Year.	Colored.	White.
1831,.....	.....	\$292	1837,.....	\$731	\$13,144
1832,.....	.....	433	1838,.....	132	1,664
1833,.....	.....	2,662	1839,.....	581	6,083
1834,.....	\$469	10,248	1840,.....	1,375	3,338
1835,.....	1,252	12,341	1841,.....	1,530	4,374
1836,.....	2,237	9,689			

## BRITISH AMERICAN COLONIES

Have been regular customers to a small amount.

Year.	Colored.	White.	Year.	Colored.	White.
1826,.....	\$736	\$3,689	1834,.....	\$2,067	\$12,372
1827,.....	1,524	4,762	1835,.....	75	12,678
1828,.....	593	4,800	1836,.....	305	1,451
1829,.....	800	1,452	1837,.....	620	2,444
1830,.....	323	1,189	1838,.....	48	5,274
1831,.....	83	2,693	1839,.....	13	1,885
1832,.....	.....	7,719	1840,.....	.....	7,428
1833,.....	354	20,935	1841,.....	.....	3,453

## BRITISH GUIANA

Received, in 1833, \$337 worth of colored goods; in 1838, \$4,121; and in 1841, \$9,533.

## SPAIN ON THE MEDITERRANEAN,

Received, in 1840, \$7,013 worth of white goods; and the

## SPANISH WEST INDIES

Year.	Colored.	White.	Year.	Colored.	White.
1826,.....	.....	\$126	1834,.....	.....	\$403
1827,.....	.....	1,175	1835,.....	\$1,127	.....
1828,.....	.....	259	1836,.....	995	119
1829,.....	.....	497	1837,.....	1,561	2,673
1830,.....	\$270	640	1838,.....	300	458
1831,.....	185	595	1839,.....	.....	778
1832,.....	.....	96	1840,.....	1,013	2,849
1833,.....	1,723	360			

## ITALY AND MALTA.

Year.	White.	Year.	White.
1826,.....	\$5,102	1830,.....	\$24,514
1827,.....	1,401	1831,.....	660
1828,.....	2,941	1832,.....	7,366
1829,.....	1,485		

In 1838, Italy alone received \$44 worth of white goods; in 1840, \$1,342; and in 1841, \$10,274.

## GREECE,

In 1838, received \$1,579 worth of white goods.

## TRIESTE, AND OTHER PORTS ON THE ADRIATIC.

Year.	White.	Year.	White.
1826,.....	\$4,095	1835,.....	\$1,000
1827,.....	20,465	1837,.....	200
1829,.....	10,080	1839,.....	1,484
1834,.....	416	1840,.....	1,350

all white goods. In 1837, \$289 worth of colored; and in 1839, \$138.

## SICILY,

In 1841, commenced by receiving \$500 worth of white goods.

## AFRICA, GENERALLY,

Has afforded, since 1826, a considerable market; which, as the American settlements there progress, will continue to extend the consumption of our manufactures.

Year.	Colored.	White.	Year.	Colored.	White.
1825,.....	\$3,609	\$1,759	1834,.....	\$13,607	\$13,927
1827,.....	3,975	3,450	1835,.....	18,284	27,475
1828,.....	4,007	11,390	1836,.....	17,005	18,827
1829,.....	6,369	9,249	1837,.....	12,900	43,594
1830,.....	4,350	4,619	1838,.....	9,148	69,568
1831,.....	4,345	6,171	1839,.....	22,974	68,790
1832,.....	8,455	19,015	1840,.....	22,903	53,478
1833,.....	18,004	15,665	1841,.....	33,097	84,266

## PORTUGAL

Has received a small amount, viz:—In 1826, \$833 worth of white goods; in 1837, \$2,244; in 1838, \$740; and in 1835, \$548 worth of colored.

## AZORES,

In 1826, received \$2,636 worth of colored, and \$200 worth of white; and since 1831 have continued to take a small amount.

Year.	Colored.	White.	Year.	Colored.	White.
1831,.....	.....	\$825	1837,.....	\$335	\$1,483
1832,.....	\$124	704	1838,.....	495	1,728
1833,.....	.....	1,329	1839,.....	.....	823
1834,.....	.....	3,172	1840,.....	3,617	1,358
1835,.....	.....	1,460	1841,.....	.....	1,584
1836,.....	.....	1,196			

## MADEIRA

Has also furnished a regular but small market from 1826 to 1838.

Year.	Colored.	White.	Year.	Colored.	White.
1826,.....	.....	\$2,504	1833,.....	\$1,661	\$4,476
1827,.....	.....	417	1834,.....	399	295
1828,.....	.....	90	1835,.....	213	2,471
1829,.....	\$711	5,187	1836,.....	50	548
1830,.....	.....	310	1837,.....	.....	2,465
1831,.....	21	88	1838,.....	.....	499

## TENERIFFE,

In 1826, received \$502 worth of white goods; in 1827, \$500; in 1829, \$5,650; in 1830, \$1,107; in 1831, \$1,959; in 1832, \$516; and in 1827, \$21 worth of colored goods; in 1831, \$480.

## CAPE DE VERDS

Have been more important customers.

Year.	Colored.	White.	Year.	Colored.	White.
1826,.....	.....	\$9,693	1834,.....	\$422	\$12,550
1827,.....	\$1,760	23,304	1835,.....	514	24,539
1828,.....	2,236	7,216	1836,.....	697	16,664
1829,.....	1,743	20,410	1837,.....	8,739	81,647
1830,.....	1,381	17,318	1838,.....	13,249	52,911
1831,.....	2,140	13,647	1839,.....	2,175	35,410
1832,.....	894	9,023	1840,.....	4,457	16,224
1833,.....	4,785	16,655	1841,.....	8,487	16,179

## HAYTI

Has received regularly from us during the whole period, to a moderate extent.

Year.	Colored.	White.	Year.	Colored.	White.
1826,.....	\$6,292	\$9,374	1830,.....	\$4,618	\$9,267
1827,.....	2,441	4,023	1831,.....	1,398	15,363
1828,.....	2,282	5,396	1832,.....	1,288	15,660
1829,.....	3,423	4,894	1833,.....	8,348	9,304

## HAYTI—Continued.

Year.	Colored.	White.	Year.	Colored.	White.
1834,.....	\$4,459	\$10,945	1838,.....	\$4,373	\$24,078
1835,.....	7,805	20,876	1839,.....	14,829	47,034
1836,.....	5,931	21,984	1840,.....	8,519	39,702
1837,.....	10,468	15,302	1841,.....	6,100	34,111

## CUBA.

Both colored and white goods have also found a tolerable market in this island, from the first export in 1826.

Year.	Colored.	White.	Year.	Colored.	White.
1826,.....	\$9,336	\$23,395	1834,.....	\$20,467	\$32,983
1827,.....	6,082	13,509	1835,.....	24,218	66,140
1828,.....	2,737	15,126	1836,.....	9,009	23,317
1829,.....	8,112	13,868	1837,.....	17,566	43,416
1830,.....	4,155	7,021	1838,.....	3,356	115,629
1831,.....	1,970	4,564	1839,.....	3,383	51,337
1832,.....	894	7,448	1840,.....	8,957	53,557
1833,.....	10,810	9,783	1841,.....	4,884	42,554

## DANISH WEST INDIES

Have been regular customers.

Year.	Colored.	White.	Year.	Colored.	White.
1826,.....	\$7,171	\$17,301	1834,.....	\$2,359	\$17,909
1827,.....	749	7,238	1835,.....	4,791	13,520
1828,.....	4,510	6,439	1836,.....	4,194	10,465
1829,.....	1,745	2,477	1837,.....	2,568	24,946
1830,.....	18	4,100	1838,.....	736	13,267
1831,.....	195	3,702	1839,.....	1,032	16,338
1832,.....	623	5,476	1840,.....	3,261	32,346
1833,.....	3,230	6,354	1841,.....	4,751	35,478

## SWEDISH WEST INDIES,

Since 1828, have taken more or less.

Year.	Colored.	White.	Year.	Colored.	White.
1828,.....	.....	\$534	1836,.....	.....	\$443
1829,.....	\$768	486	1838,.....	\$102	734
1830,.....	.....	1,020	1839,.....	452	1,687
1831,.....	.....	300	1840,.....	619	471
1832,.....	.....	150	1841,.....	.....	76
1835,.....	192	1,094			

## WEST INDIES, GENERALLY,

Not before mentioned, have received small amounts.

From the preceding statements, prepared with considerable labor from treasury documents, some idea may be formed of the importance of this branch of American manufactures, which is yet in its infancy, and struggling under many difficulties. It is gratifying to find that American goods are making their way to almost every portion of the globe to which our commerce extends; and although to many places the amount of export is at present small, indications are afforded of the future extent to which it may be carried. These tables will be useful, as pointing out the various markets to which cotton goods have been sent, and directing future adventurers to those which appear to hold out favorable prospects, from the gradual increase of the amount which they have required.

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 THE BOOK TRADE.
 

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- 1.—*Illustrations of the Croton Aqueduct.* By F. B. TOWER, of the Engineer Department. 1 vol. quarto. New York: Wiley & Putnam. 1843.

We have looked over the pages and illustrations of this splendid volume with great interest. The views it furnishes of the important points on the line of the Croton aqueduct, are engraved from sketches taken by Mr. Tower, who was employed as an engineer on the work from its commencement to its completion, for his own satisfaction; but the interest so generally taken in the enterprise suggested to him the propriety of presenting them to the public in the present form. The first forty-seven pages of the volume are devoted to a comprehensive description of the aqueducts of ancient Rome; the principal aqueducts constructed by the ancient Romans in other parts of Europe; aqueducts of modern Rome; principal modern aqueducts of Italy, France, &c.; aqueducts of Mexico, and the adjacent states; aqueducts of South America, fountains, &c. Then follows a history of the progressive measures for supplying the city of New York with water; of the plans proposed for the same purpose, and of that which was finally adopted, and has been so successfully and satisfactorily completed; the sources of the Croton river; flow of water in the Croton; capacity of the fountain reservoir; general design of the channel-way and reservoirs; an account of the general construction of the aqueduct, and a description of the line of it, are prepared with good taste, and the utmost accuracy. The illustrations, twenty in number, are beautifully executed, rendering the work an ornament for the library or centre-table, aside from its great practical value to the accomplished engineer, to whom we should suppose it would be almost indispensable. We give a list of the illustrations, as follows:—Sections of the Croton aqueduct; Entrance ventilator; Isometrical view of culvert; Tunnel and gate-chamber, at the head of the aqueduct; View above the Croton dam; Entablature over the entrance to the aqueduct; View below the Croton dam; View of the aqueduct, and aqueduct-bridge, at Sing Sing; Aqueduct-bridge, for roadway; Croton aqueduct at Mill river—at Jewell's brook—at Hastings—at Yonkers—at Harlem river; View of the jet at Harlem river; Croton aqueduct, at Clendenning valley; Aqueduct-bridge, at Clendenning valley; Plan of the receiving reservoir, and Isometrical view of the distributing reservoir. Appended to the volume, is a valuable essay on the natural history of water; embracing an analysis of the Croton and Schuylkill waters, and a variety of other appropriate and useful facts, prepared by Charles A. Lee, M. D. The work has cost Mr. Tower great care and industry, and a large sum of money; so that the whole edition, if disposed of at the moderate price of \$3 50 per copy, will only pay the actual expenditures in the engraving and printing of the book, leaving no balance to compensate him for the time occupied in making the drawings, and preparing the history and letter-press illustrations for publication.

- 2.—*Thirty Years from Home; or, A Voice from the Main-Deck:* being the Experience of SAMUEL LEECH. Embellished with engravings. Boston: Tappan & Dennet. 1843.

It is well remarked that the quarter-deck has long and often told its own story. In this volume, an unlettered tar details the secrets of the naval main-deck. The author was six years in the British and American navies. Captured in the British frigate *Macedonian* in the last war, he afterwards entered the American navy, and was taken in the United States brig *Syren*, by the British ship *Medway*. His experience has furnished the materials of an interesting volume. The credentials to his character for veracity are such as to induce the belief that the details of his life and adventures may be relied upon as generally authentic.

3.—*Speeches of John C. Calhoun.* Delivered in the Congress of the United States from 1811 to the present time. New York: Harper & Brothers. 1843.

This volume contains nearly six hundred closely printed octavo pages, embracing thirty-eight speeches, mostly delivered in Congress from 1811 to 1843. Whatever difference of opinion may exist among our countrymen as to the soundness of Mr. Calhoun's political doctrines, no one can detract from the transcendent genius of the statesman, or the unsullied purity of the man. These speeches afford the best, if not the only means of knowing the political opinions of a citizen "who, for a long succession of years, has occupied a conspicuous place before the public; who, as a high officer of government at one time, and as a statesman and legislator both before and since that time, has taken a leading part in all the great political questions that have agitated the country; who has long possessed an almost paramount influence in one part of the Union, and been looked upon, in fact, as the chief representative of political opinion in that portion; and who, finally, has now retired from direct participation in the councils of the country, only to occupy the station of a candidate for the highest office in the gift of the people." The compiler, in his zeal for Mr. Calhoun's consistency, has omitted several of his earlier, but not less able speeches. No one, however, supposes for a moment that the high-minded statesman had any participation in the disingenuous act. It seems to us a very strange notion, that a statesman may not modify his opinions, or adopt from conviction entirely different views, without losing the confidence of his constituents, or incurring the charge of inconsistency. We have been inclined to think that such changes were evidences of greater light, or at least indications of a commendable frankness and honesty of purpose. We would not, however, be understood as the advocate of all Mr. Calhoun's political doctrines, or as participating in the party politics of any man.

4.—*Tables exhibiting the Present Worth of Government or State Stocks, etc.* By JOSEPH M. PRICE. New York: Peter A. Mesier. 1843.

These tables, which have evidently been prepared with great care, are designed to show, at a glance, what price should be paid for stocks on which interest is payable semi-annually or quarterly, and which are redeemable at the end of from one to fifty years, in order to have them yield to the purchaser any given rate of interest, from 3 to 10 per cent. They are calculated upon the only true principle that can be used, to produce direct and positive results—that of annuities and compound interest. A person purchasing a stock, purchases an annuity equal in amount to the yearly interest the stock bears, and also purchases the par of the stock payable at a future period. The present worth of these two, at the rate of interest assumed or desired by the purchaser, constitutes the present worth of the stock at such assumed rate. The labor of constructing these tables has been vastly increased by referring the interest to a yearly basis, as the only mode of instituting a proper comparison between a stock, the interest of which is payable semi-annually, and the same stock interest payable quarterly. And, although this gives rise to what might, at first sight, appear an inconsistency, (as, for instance, a five per cent stock, to produce five per cent, is shown to be worth a trifle over par,) yet it assimilates itself precisely to the most approved method of keeping mercantile accounts—in which interest is debited on all payments, and credited on all receipts, to the end of the year—as is clearly and fully set forth in the introduction to the work.

5.—*The Marriage Ring; or, How to make Home Happy.* From the writings of JOHN ANGELL JAMES. Boston: Gould, Kendall, & Lincoln. 1843.

This beautiful little volume is compiled from the writings of an able and popular English dissenter. The compiler informs us that he "endeavored to present a work that shall be both interesting and instructive, and a suitable offering from the hands of the Christian pastor or pious friend."

- 6.—*Mental Hygiene; or, an Examination of the Intellect and Passions, designed to illustrate their influence on Health and the Duration of Life.* By WILLIAM SWEETSER, M. D., late Professor of the Theory and Practice of Physic, and Fellow of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences. New York: J. & H. G. Langley. 1843.

We had read with interest the work of Dr. S. on consumption, published several years ago, a work written with clearness, and divested of the technicalities of the profession, so desirable to the unprofessional reader, seeking information on subjects that do not fall immediately within his vocation or calling. The present work is in the same style, and more generally interesting. Its leading design, as the title implies, is to elucidate the influence of intellect and passion upon the health and endurance of the human organization. The work is divided into two parts. In the first, are considered the intellectual operations in respect to their influence on the general functions of the body. The second part is devoted to a view of the moral feelings or passions, in the relation which they also sustain to our physical nature, embracing a concise definition, with such general classification as is necessary to the leading design of the work; describing a few of the most important of the passions belonging to each of the three great classes, namely, pleasurable, painful, and mixed, into which they are separated; examining closely their physical phenomena, and incidental influence in the well-being of the human mechanism. The evil consequences resulting from an ill-regulated imagination, to the firmness of the nervous system, and the integrity of the general health, are forcibly exposed. Truth being the grand aim of Dr. S. in his investigations, all mystical speculations and ungrounded theories, whether of a metaphysical or moral nature, appear to be avoided in the pages of the work. It is addressed to no particular class of readers, and its matter is rendered as plain and comprehensible as the nature of the subject will admit.

- 7.—*Davis's Manual of Magnetism; including also Electro-Magnetism, Magneto-Electricity, and Thermo-Electricity. With a description of the Electrotpe Process.* For the use of Students and Literary Institutions. With one hundred Illustrations. Boston: Daniel Davis. New York: Saxton & Miles.

The progress of magnetism and electricity, as related to science, is truly astonishing. Many important facts which have been observed, have not, as yet, been collected in any scientific treatise, and the amount of unwritten knowledge is constantly increasing. The work before us furnishes a very full view, embracing all that is new and authenticated, of these sciences; together with minute descriptions of the instruments and experiments designed to illustrate them in their relation to each other. It is therefore adapted, not only for a manual, but will answer the purpose of an elementary treatise in those branches of science to which it relates. Mr. Davis's object, it appears, has been simply to state the facts which have been observed, and to generalize them only so far as the progress of discovery has fully authorized. Many of the observations recorded in the volume, and many of the instruments described, are new. The volume is beautifully printed on a fine, white, and firm paper.

- 8.—*Every-Day Book, or History and Chronology: embracing the Anniversaries of Memorable Persons and Events, in every period and state of the world, from the Creation to the present time.* Compiled from authentic sources. By JOEL MUNSELL. 2 vols. 12mo. Albany: Erastus H. Pease.

The object of the present work, as will be seen by the title-page quoted, is to bring together the most memorable events of each day in the year, in all ages, as far as their dates can be ascertained, arranged chronologically. Although the volumes contain about nine hundred pages of closely printed matter, the compiler appears to have devoted as few words as possible to each subject, in order to embrace the principal great events. The work is evidently the result of an unusual degree of research, and the most untiring industry. It dates back to an early period before the Christian era, and records events down to the present time.

- 9.—*The Kingdom of Christ; or, Hints respecting the Principles, Constitution, and Ordinances of the Catholic Church.* By F. D. MAURICE, M. A., Chaplain of Guy's Hospital, and Professor of English Literature and History in King's College, London. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1843.

This is one of the most remarkable and interesting books which has come from the English church. It is masterly in its criticisms, evincing great compass of thought, fidelity of study, and candor. Evidently, Mr. Maurice has been a reverend disciple of Coleridge; and shows, in intellectual symmetry and strength, the substantial food the master supplied. He has none of that aping of Coleridge's style, however, which offends the heart as well as head, in reading some of his follower's writings. This book might exert great power in England and in this country, if the currents which are sweeping men on were not so deep and strong. If the Oxford Tractarians would listen to this judicious, though earnest churchman, they would avoid the plunge which they are rapidly hastening to make into Romanism. On the other hand, if the Evangelicals would follow this lead, and co-operate with such a movement as Mr. Maurice contemplates, they might quicken spirituality while preserving steadfastly all the institutions of "the Church." Indeed, this is the soundest, most thorough, and just book that has been called out by the existing controversies in the Episcopal body. All in vain, however, probably, will be such well-timed words. Changes are at hand, which will divide between realities and appearances, substances and shadows, as with a sword of fire. Meanwhile, we recommend this book as a most instructive one to all earnest seekers of truth, of all denominations. The Messrs. Appleton have added a most noble and useful volume to their long list of publications.

- 10.—*Catholic Imputation, &c.* By VANBRUGH LIVINGSTON. With an Introduction, by the Right Rev. JOHN HUGHES, D. D. New York: Casserly & Sons. 1843.

This book, and its introduction, are interesting signs of the times to all observers. It contains an amount of historical illustration of past opinions, which are quite valuable. To Episcopalians, especially, in the perplexed and divided state of that body, it must meet with respectful attention, and must present to many minds considerations whose force it will be difficult to avoid. If this were the place for polemics, criticisms might easily be made upon both the introduction and the book. Both writers take much for granted which requires some proofs. It is not impossible that the impending controversies between two churches, each assuming to be Catholic, may present the whole question of the One, Holy, Universal Church, in new aspects to this generation. This book is candid, talented, and instructive, and will reward perusal.

- 11.—*Old Humphrey's Walks in London and its Neighborhood.* By the author of "Old Humphrey's Observations," "Addresses," "Thoughts for the Thoughtful," &c. 18mo. pp. 286. New York: Robert Carter. 1843.

We have noticed, from time to time, as they were reprinted by the same enterprising house, the works of this popular author. There is a quaintness and individuality, that not only interests the reader in the book, but in its author. We feel, in the perusal, that good-nature, charity, or benevolence, united with shrewdness, are the distinguishing characteristics of "Old Humphrey." His "Walks in London" are deeply tinged with the "orthodox" religious sentiment, though not sectarian. He says in his preface—"I trust it will not appear that I have sought to give pleasure unaccompanied with profit, but so connected my walks in London with that 'city which hath foundations,' that those who are informed as to the one, shall not be altogether unmindful of the other." The volume contains visits to twenty-five different places, as the "Tower of London," "St. Paul's Cathedral," &c. It is printed in the uniform neat style of the other works of this author, and, indeed, of the numerous publications of Robert Carter.

- 12.—*Lectures on the Epistle of Paul the Apostle to the Romans.* By THOMAS CHALMERS, D. D. and LL. D., Professor of Theology in the University of Edinburgh, and Corresponding Member of the Royal Institute of France. 8vo. in five parts. New York: Robert Carter. 1843.

Dr. Chalmers stands in the front rank of the "orthodox" divines of the present century, and his writings will be considered as standards among Christians and theologians of the Calvinistic school, while the tenets of that distinguished reformer endure. Whatever we may think of the soundness of the theological views inculcated in the *Lectures on the Epistle to the Romans*, there can be but one opinion as to the ability of his commentaries, or the strength and beauty of the language in which they are written.

- 13.—*Marmaduke Wyvil; or, The Maid's Revenge.* A Historical Romance. By HENRY WILLIAM HERBERT, author of "The Brothers," "Cromwell," &c. New York: J. Winchester. 1843.

We have not found time to read this work, but we make no doubt, from the well established character of the author, that it is replete with all the characteristics of a fascinating romance. All the facts introduced as historical, we are assured by Mr. Herbert, will be found strictly true; the author deeming it a species of crime, even in fiction, to falsify the truth of history.

- 14.—*An Introduction to Geometry and the Science of Form.* Prepared from the most approved Prussian Text-books. Boston: James Munroe & Co. 1843.

This elementary treatise appears to have been prepared with great care, and is admirably adapted to the wants of the student in geometry and the science of form. "By a beautiful and original series of inductive processes," says the learned professor of astronomy and mathematics in Harvard University, "it avoids tedious demonstrations, develops the taste for observation, and leads the pupil to a real and practical knowledge of the truths of geometry with a rapidity which would not have been anticipated."

- 15.—*Devotional Exercises for Schools.* Boston: J. Munroe & Co.

This little manual consists of selections from the Bible, judiciously arranged. Its unsectarian character will, we presume, render it very generally acceptable to the liberal and enlightened Christian.

- 16.—*Antioch; or, Increase of Moral Power in the Church of Christ.* By PHARCELLUS CHURCH. With an Introductory Essay, by Rev. BARON STOW. Boston: Gould, Kendall, & Lincoln. 1843.

This work contains the ideas, in an expanded form, of an address on commencement week, before a subsidiary organization of the Hamilton Theological Seminary. The author is favorably known to the religious public as an original thinker, and a forcible writer. His two principal works, entitled "Philosophy of Benevolence," and "Prose Essay on Religious Dissensions," have been extensively read and circulated.

- 17.—*Lessons on the Book of Proverbs, Topically arranged, forming a System of Practical Ethics, for the use of Sabbath Schools and Bible Classes.* Boston: Tappan & Dennet.

An excellent little volume, admirably elucidating and enforcing, by appropriate examples, the various Proverbs of Solomon. It may with safety be recommended to the religious of all denominations.

- 18.—*Russia and the Russians.* By J. G. HALL. In two parts. Philadelphia: Carey & Hart. 1843.

A very interesting description of Russia, its manners, customs, habits, and all that relates to its social condition or political institutions, by one who resided among the people he appears to have described with fidelity and candor. It forms the two first parts of the Foreign Library. The work is printed on a fair type, but rather poor paper. Price, 25 cents per part.

- 19.—*Life in Mexico, during a Two Years' Residence in that country.* By Mme. C. DE LA B—. In two vols. 12mo. pp. 412 and 423. Boston: Charles C. Little and James Brown. 1843.

We have seldom seen two volumes of residence or travel in foreign lands more deeply interesting than the present; but perhaps the best notice we can give of them under our "Book Trade" is the preface to this work, by the accomplished author of "Ferdinand and Isabella," William H. Prescott, Esq. He says:—"This work is the result of observations made during a two years' residence in Mexico, by a lady, whose position there made her intimately acquainted with its society, and opened to her the best sources of information in regard to whatever could interest an enlightened foreigner. It consists of letters written to members of her own family, and, *really*, not intended originally—however incredible the assertion—for publication. Feeling a regret that such rich stores of instruction and amusement, from which I have so much profited myself, should be reserved for the eyes of a few friends only, I strongly recommended that they should be given to the world. This is now done, with a few such alterations and omissions as were necessary in a private correspondence; and although the work would derive more credit from the author's own name than from anything which I could say, yet as she declines prefixing it, I feel much pleasure in making this statement, by way of introduction, to the public." We may add that the volumes have received the consenting praise of the highest literary authorities. The typography of the volumes is unexceptionably elegant and beautiful.

- 20.—*The Farmer's Encyclopædia, and Dictionary of Rural Affairs.* By CUTHBERT W. JOHNSON. Philadelphia: Carey & Hart.

We have received the tenth number of this excellent work. It should be in the hands of every American agriculturist, as it combines all the matter of the English edition with judicious adaptations to our soil, climate, &c., and numerous additions by a practical farmer of the United States.

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☞ *Letters to the Cotton Manufacturers of Massachusetts.*—We have received from Henry Lee, Esq., a distinguished merchant of Boston, several letters, forming part of a series now in press, and to be published sometime in November next, in pamphlet form; which, although addressed to the cotton manufacturers of Massachusetts, are of general interest to the cotton planter, as well as the manufacturer, in the United States. In the twenty-fifth letter, now before us, Mr. Lee maintains that the consumption of cotton in Europe, other than the product of India and America, is too insignificant to have any important bearing in prices—that the superior cheapness of home-grown cotton is especially favorable to the interests of New England, as the principal seat of cotton manufacturing—that the decline in the value of cotton has increased the ratio of advantage heretofore enjoyed by the American over the British manufacturers—that heavy cotton goods, according to the statements of the manufacturers, are made as cheap, or cheaper, in this country, than in England—that the charges of importing cotton goods, under a duty of 25 per cent, amount to 45 per cent, without any allowance of mercantile profit to the importer—that any material advance in the existing prices of cotton must arise from over-issues of currency, or from speculative operations in the article, and consequently is not likely to be maintained—that the prostration of bank credit, and of banking operations, in the southwestern states, is favorable to a continuance of the existing natural and sufficient prices of cotton—that the notion of increasing the wealth of the community by altering the measure of value, still prevalent through the country, is fallacious.